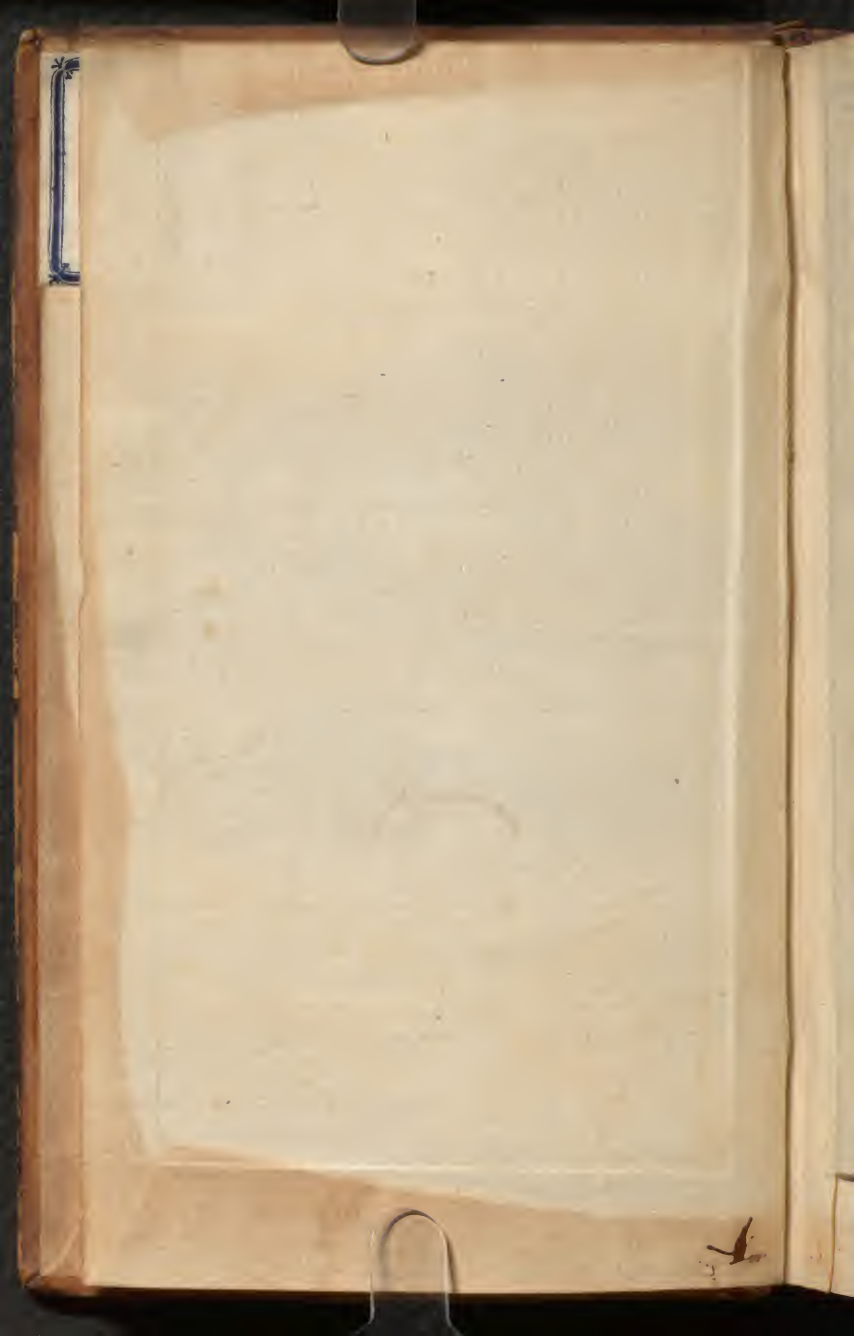

A New and Correct MAP of the PROVINCES of NEW ENGLAND, NEW YORK, and CANADA, OR NEW FRANCE.

The Names lately given to some of these Northern Parts of Canada and the Lakes are here omitted as of uncertain Authority

A Scale of British Statute Miles.

NEW FRANCE OR CANADA

HUDSONS BAY

Hudsons Bay

The Lands Height

Bounds

Lake Abitibis

Lake Temiscamings

Lake Nipissin

Lake Mistassins

Lake Papinachies

Lake Medousa

Lake Begon

Lake Miskouaskaw

Lake Kouinagamusch

Lake Erie or Osswego

Lake Ontario or Middle

Lake Huron

Messesagues, subdued by the Iroquois and United with them makeing the 8th Nation in that League.

MESSESAGUES

ALGONQUINS

ABENAKIES

ANTIENT ALGONQUINS

ANTIENT OUTAOUAIS

The Six Nations have been in possession of these Territories about 100 years

OHIO INDIANS

PENSILVANIA

NEW YORK

NEW ENGLAND

MASSACHUSSETS BAY

CONNECTICUT

NEW HAMPSHIRE

PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA

PROVINCE OF LABRADOR

ATLANTIC OCEAN

Cape Cod

Nantucket Shoals

Longitude West from London

J. Gibson sculpt.

THE AMERICAN GAZETTEER.

CONTAINING

A diſtinct ACCOUNT of all the Parts

OF THE

NEW WORLD:

THEIR

SITUATION, CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE, Former and Preſent CONDITION;

COMMODITIES, MANUFACTURES, and COMMERCE.

Together with

An accurate Account of the Cities, Towns, Ports, Bays, Rivers, Lakes, Mountains, Paſſes, and Fortifications.

The whole intended to exhibit

The Preſent State of Things in that Part of the Globe, and the Views and Intereſts of the ſeveral Powers who have Poſſeſſions in AMERICA.

Illuſtrated with proper MAPS.

IN THREE VOLUMES.

VOL. II.

LONDON:

Printed for A. MILLAR, and J. & R. TONSON, in the *Strand*. 1762.

Directions to the BINDER for placing the maps.

THE map of America, to face the Title of the Firſt Volume.

The map of New England, New York, &c. to face the Title of the Second Volume.

The map of the Weſt-Indies, to face the Title of the Third Volume.

The map of North and South Carolina, to face CAROLINA, Vol. I.

Map of Newfoundland, &c. to face NEWFOUNDLAND, Vol. III.

Map of Penſylvania, &c. to face PENSYLVANIA, Vol. III.

THE

AMERICAN GAZETTEER.

GAL

GABRIEL, ST. an island in the great river de la Plata, in the empire of Peru, belonging to South America. It was discovered by Sebastian Gabot in the year 1526.

GABORI, BAY OF, is situated on the S. E. coast of Cape Breton, in North America. The entrance into it, which is 20 leagues from the isles of St. Pierre, is a league in breadth, and lying between islands and rocks. To every one of the former, vessels may approach very near; some stretch themselves into the sea about a league and a half. The depth of this bay inland is two leagues, and here is good anchorage.

GALETTE, LA, a neck of land in the river St. Laurence, belonging to Canada in North America. From the point opposite to l'isle de Montreal a road might be made to Galette, by which means 40 leagues of navigation would be avoided, which the water-falls render almost impracticable, and always very tedious. The land about

la Galette is very good; and in two days time a bark may ſail from la Galette to Niagara with a good wind. La Galette is a league and a half above the fall called les Galots.

GALOTS, a water-fall ſo called, which lies in the river St. Laurence in Canada, in North America. It is the laſt of the caſcades here. Betwixt the neck of land la Galette and les Galots is an admirable country, and no where can be ſeen finer foreſts.

GALOTS, L'ISLE AUX, an iſland in the river of St. Laurence in Canada, in North America. It is ſituated three leagues beyond l'iſle aux Chevres, in lat. 43. 33. N.

GALLAPAGO, ISLANDS OF, a great number of ſmall uninhabited iſlands in the Pacific ocean, lying under and on both ſides of the equator. The eaſtermoſt is about 110 leagues from the Terra Firma, or Main, that is in long. 85. W. from London: and the others between that and long. 90. W. Here ſhips frequently refit, and take in water and proviſions: but the Spaniards have never ſent any colonies thither; yet they, being the firſt diſcoverers, report them to be very numerous, ſtretching N. E. from the line as far as 5 degrees N. but Dampier ſays he ſaw not not above 14 or 15. Some of them are 7 or 8 leagues long, and 3 or 4 broad; moſt of them being flat and even a-top: 4 or 5 of the eaſtermoſt are rocky, barren, and hilly, producing neither tree, herb, nor graſs, only a few dildo-trees, except by the ſea-ſide. The dildo is a large prickly ſhrub, growing about 10 or 12 feet high without fruit or leaf. From the root to the top it is as large as a man's leg, and full of ſharp prickles, growing in thick rows from top to bottom;

tom; but it is good for nothing, not ſo much as to burn. In ſome places, cloſe by the ſea, grow buſhes of burton-wood, which is very good fuel. This laſt ſort of wood is to be met with in many places of the Weſt Indies, eſpecially Campeachy-bay and the Samballoes. Dampier ſays he ſaw none in the South-Seas but here. On theſe barren iſlands water is found in ponds and holes among the rocks. Some others of theſe iſlands are more plain and low, and the ſoil more fertile, producing trees of ſeveral ſorts unknown in Europe. Some of the weſtermoſt of theſe iſlands are 9 or 10 leagues in length, and 6 or 7 in breadth, with a deep and black mould. Theſe produce trees of large tall bodies, eſpecially mammee-trees, which grow here in large groves. The mammee is a large, tall, and ſtreight-bodied tree, clear, without knots or limbs, for 60 or 70 feet and upwards. The head ſpreads abroad into many ſmall limbs, which grow pretty thick and cloſe together. The bark is of a dark grey colour, thick and rough, full of large chinks or chops: the fruit is larger than a quince; it is round, and covered with a thick rind of a grey colour. When the fruit is ripe, the rind is yellow and tough, and will peel off like leather; but before it is ripe, is brittle; the juice is white and clammy, but not ſo when ripe. The ripe fruit is yellow like a carrot; and in the middle are two large rough ſtones, flat, and each of them much bigger than an almond. The fruit ſmells very well, and its taſte is anſwerable.

In theſe large iſlands are ſome pretty conſiderable rivers, and in many of the ſmaller ones are brooks of good water. The Spaniards, upon

the firſt diſcovery of theſe iſlands, found multitudes of guano's and tortoiſes, or land-turtles; and Dampier ſays, he believes no place in the world is ſo plentifully ſtored with them. The guano is an animal like the lizard, but much larger, and of the bigneſs of a man's leg, with a tail tapering to the end, which is very ſmall. They lay eggs, as moſt of theſe amphibious animals do, and are very good to eat. Their fleſh is much eſteemed by privateers, who commonly dreſs them for their ſick men, and they make very good broth: they are of divers colours; and they all live as well in the water as on land. Some of them are continually in the water and among rocks; theſe are commonly black: others that live in ſwampy wet grounds are commonly on buſhes and trees; theſe are green; but ſuch as live on dry ground are commonly yellow; yet theſe alſo will live in water, and are ſometimes on trees. The Gallipago guano's are very large and fat; and ſo tame, that one may knock down 20 in an hour's time with a club.

The land-turtles are here very numerous; they are extraordinary large and fat, and eat as delicate as the fleſh of a pullet. One of the largeſt among theſe will weigh 150, or 200 weight; and ſome of them are two feet, and two feet and a half over the challapee, or belly. Of theſe are three or four ſpecies in the Weſt Indies: one is called by the Spaniards hecatee; theſe live moſtly in freſh-water ponds, and ſeldom come on the land, weighing about 10 or 15 pounds, with ſmall legs, flat feet, and long ſlender necks. Another ſort is called tenapen, which is a great deal leſs than the hecatee. The ſhell on their backs is all naturally carved, finely wrought,

and

and well clouded. They delight to live in wet ſwampy places, or on land near ſuch: both are very good meat. The Gallipago tortoiſes are more like the hecatees, only they are much larger, and have very ſmall long necks and little heads.

On theſe iſlands are ſome green ſnakes, but no other land-animals that Dampier ever ſaw. Here is great plenty of turtle-doves, ſo tame that four or five dozen of them may be killed in a forenoon with a ſtick: they are ſomething leſs than a pidgeon, are commonly fat, and very good meat.

Between theſe iſlands are good wide channels fit for ſhips to paſs, and ſhoal water in ſome places, producing plenty of turtle-graſs; and therefore theſe iſlands are plentifully ſtored with ſea-turtles of that ſort, called the green-turtle. The trunk-turtle is commonly bigger than the other, their fleſh rank, and not wholeſome. The loggerhead, ſo called on account of its great head, is much larger than the other ſorts; its fleſh is very rank: they feed on moſs growing about rocks. The hawks-bill-turtle is the ſmalleſt ſort, and ſo called as having a mouth like the bill of a hawk. On the backs of theſe grows that ſhell which is ſo much eſteemed for making cabinets, ſnuff-boxes, combs, &c. The largeſt may have three pounds and a half of ſhell; but commonly a pound and a half, or two pounds: theſe are but ordinary food, but generally ſweeter than the loggerhead. The hawks-bills are in ſome places unwholeſome, cauſing the perſons who eat them to purge and vomit exceſſively, eſpecially thoſe between the Samballos and Porto Bello. They are in many places in the Weſt Indies, have iſlands and places peculiar to themſelves, where

they lay their eggs, and ſeldom come among any other turtles.

The green turtle, ſo called from its ſhell being greener than any other, and which is uſed only for inlays, being very thin and clear, will ſometimes weigh 2 or 300 pounds: theſe are the ſweeteſt of all the kind; but of them are degrees, both in regard of their fleſh and magnitude. At Blanco in the Weſt Indies, the green turtle, which is the only ſort there, is larger than any in the North Seas, weighing commonly between 280 and 300 pounds: their fat is yellow, their lean white, and extraordinary ſweet. At Boca-toro, W. of Porto Bello, they are not ſo large, their fleſh is not ſo white, nor the fat ſo yellow. Thoſe of Honduras and Campeachy are ſtill ſmaller; their fat is green, and their lean darker than in thoſe of Boca-toro. Green turtles live on graſs growing in the ſea from three to ſix fathom water: this graſs is different from the manatee ſort, which has a ſmall blade; but this is a quarter of an inch broad, and ſix inches long.

Theſe, and all other turtles, lay their eggs in the ſand between May and July, and this three times in a ſeaſon, and at each time 80 or 90 eggs, which are as big as thoſe of a hen, but very round, and only covered with a white tough ſkin. When the ſhe-turtle finds a place above high-water mark fit for her purpoſe, ſhe makes a hole with her fins in the ſand where ſhe lays her eggs, then covers them two feet deep with the ſame ſand, and this is all done at leaſt in an hour's time, when ſhe returns to the ſea again. At breeding time theſe creatures leave their common haunts for two or three months, during which it is thought they eat little or nothing. The moſt

re-

remarkable places for their breeding are Caimanes, an iſland in the Weſt Indies, and the Iſle of Aſcenſion, in the Weſtern ocean; where, when the breeding time is over, not one remains. They doubtleſs ſwim ſome hundreds of leagues to come to thoſe two places. The ſouth-quays of Cuba are about 40 leagues from thence, which is the neareſt place theſe creatures can come from; and it is certain that ſo many could not live there as come hither in a ſeaſon. Thoſe that go to lay at Aſcenſion-iſle muſt ſwim much further, no land being nearer it than 300 leagues. In the South-Seas, the Gallipagos are the iſlands where they live the greateſt part of the year, yet they go from thence over to the main to lay their eggs; which is 100 leagues the neareſt place. Theſe creatures live to a great age, and the Jamaica-turtlers obſerve that many years paſs before they come to their full growth.

The air of the Gallipagos is temperate enough, conſidering the climate. Here is conſtantly a freſh ſea-breeze all day, and cooling refreſhing winds in the night: the heat, therefore, is not ſo violent here as in moſt places near the equator. The time for the rains is in November, December, and January; in which months there is often very hard tempeſtuous weather, mixed with a deal of thunder and lightning: ſome time before and after are moderate refreſhing ſhowers: but in May, June, July, and Auguſt, the weather is always very fair.

GALLO, an iſland in the province of Popayan, belonging to the Terra Firma, in South America. It is ſituated in a deep bay, in lat. 2. 40. N. Captain Dampier ſays, that off this iſland is not above four or five fathom water;

but at Segnetta, which is on the N. ſide, a veſſel may ride ſafe in deep water, and free from any danger. This iſland is pretty high, and well provided with good wood, and ſeveral ſprings of excellent water. Here are ſeveral good ſandy bays, where a ſhip may be cleaned. It is pretty ſhoal water almoſt round the iſland; and at both the N. and S. points are ſeveral rocks, ſome of which look like a barn, others like a ſhip under ſail. To the N. E. on the main land, diſtant three leagues, is a large river called Tomaco; and about a league and a half within the river is a town of the ſame name. This is a little Indian town, whoſe inhabitants commonly ſupply veſſels with proviſions that often come here for refreſhment. At this river begins a large wood which extends 10 or 12 leagues to the ſouthward. All along this coaſt are ſeveral rivers, at whoſe ſources both the Spaniards and Indians wait for gold, which waſhes down from the mountains. This is a very rainy place, eſpecially from April to October, which is the winter ſeaſon here; at which time, from hence northward all along the coaſt of Mexico is continual thunder, lightning, and rain, with many hard tornados, or whirlwinds. The bearings here are, that the land is higher than the coaſts of Gorgona, and very full of hills and trees; particularly it has one mount which is very high.

Ganos, a place in Canada, in North America, where the Ohio, or Fair river, joins that of St. Laurence. It is 60 leagues above the mouth of the latter, and 10 leagues more by land to the right hand, before one comes to the Ohio. At Ganos is a ſpring, the water of which is like oil, and taſtes ferruginous. A little further is

another

another of quite the ſame nature, which the ſavages make uſe of againſt all ſorts of pains.

GASPE, or GACHEPE, THE BAY AND HEADLAND OF, lies a little to the S. of Cape des Roſiers, in Canada, in North America. Such as pretend that the river of St. Laurence is 40 leagues broad at its mouth, apparently meaſure it from the eaſtern point of Gaſpe. Below this bay one ſees a ſort of iſland which, in reality is no other than a ſteep rock, about 30 toiſes long, 10 high, and 4 broad. One would take it for the point or ſlope of an old wall; and it is aſſured that it formerly was joined to Mount Joli, which lies oppoſite to it on the continent. This rock has in its middle an opening in the form of an arch, through which a Biſcayan chaloupe may paſs under ſail; and on this account it has had the name of l'iſle Percée. Sailors acknowledge that they are near each other, upon perceiving a flat mountain which riſes above ſeveral more, and this is called by them La Table a Roland, i. e. Roland's round table. The natives of the diſtrict of Gaſpé are commonly diſtinguiſhed by the names of the rivers along whoſe banks they live, the three principal of which are, St. Jean, Riſtigonetie, and Mizamiche, or Miramichi, and by the French St. Croix. They are tall and well ſhaped, civil and hoſpitable, and their women handſome and chaſte, except in ſome parts along the coaſts, where the abuſe of the French aqua vitæ, or brandy, hath given occaſion to their loſing that precious virtue, as it hath the men that of their affability. For theſe drink it to ſuch exceſs as to become quite cruel and brutal, inſomuch, that upon the leaſt diſlike, with, or even without an

occaſion given, they fall foul not only on their friends as well as ſtrangers, but even on their wives and children, maſſacring all that come in their way: and, if not prevented, they make attempts on their own lives. One ſingularity obſerved by Clerc, a monk that lived among the Gaſpeſians, eſpecially along the river Miramichi, is, that though they ſhew no ſign of religion, except bowing to the riſing ſun, yet even a long time before the Europeans came among them, they have had a great veneration for the croſs which they uſed to carry about them as a powerful preſervative; whence the French called them at firſt croſs-bearers, and their river La Croix. They are alſo repreſented as having been more expert mariners than their neighbours; to have had a knowledge of the greater and leſſer bear, and to have divided their compaſs into five different parts, or winds; beſides ſeveral other particulars relating to their reckoning of time, ſailing, &c. See the ſame author's N. Relat. de Gaſpeſie, Paris 1691.

With regard to Gaſpe itſelf, it is not remarkable for any thing, only that it takes its name from the bay on which it is ſituated, and which lies between the Cape des Roſiers, and l'iſle Percee, or the Hollow iſland, above-mentioned. Beſides this bay are two other noted ones upon this coaſt, namely, des Chaleurs and Campſieus; all which are moſtly frequented by fiſhermen, who commonly catch ſalmon, jack, cod, porpoiſes, and the like.

The ſavages, with whom treaties have been made in the parts confining on the gulph of St. Laurence, are the ſame with thoſe of Acadia; but in theſe regions they have been called Gaſ-

peſians,

pesians, from Cape de Gaspe, where most of the shipping moored. They are very tractable; but stay so short a time in a place, that in spite of the labours of the missionaries, they have not been able to instruct them in the truths of religion. By a letter written by F. Julian Perrault, in 1635, we learn that these savages took a pleasure in imitating whatever they saw the Europeans do; that having in particular observed that the latter frequently made the sign of the cross upon themselves, they used the same also; and when they met with any body, they drew the sign of the cross on different parts of their bodies; but without having at first the least idea of its being a mark or symbol of religion. This usage, which was already ancient from the time that F. le Clerc resided among the Gaspesians, and probably from that time had come into superstitious practice, might have persuaded this religious that it was so in its original; and it might possibly happen also, that having, on this head, asked some of these savages, such barbarians, as often confounding all their traditions, might seem to him to have ranked this among the most ancient of their customs: and thus through mistake they have been called Portecroix.

GASPE, the capital of a territory called Gaspesia, in Canada Proper, in North America, extending itself along the eastern coasts of this province from the Cape des Rosiers, at the mouth of St. Laurence river, to another promontory which lies opposite to Cape Breton, about 110 leagues, and stretches much further inland.

GEMESIE, FORT OF, in the river of St. John, in North America, after the taking of Peutagoet, in 1674, by 110 men under the com-

mand of an Engliſhman in a Flemiſh corſair, by ſurpriſe, fell eaſily into our hands ſoon after. And thus, ſays Mr. Charlevoix, Acadia, the whole defence of which conſiſted in theſe two forts, lay open to the incurſions of the Engliſh. The author of this hoſtility, in the time of a profound peace ſubſiſting between both crowns, had no lawful commiſſion, continues he, and his proceedings were diſavowed by his court. It was beſides well known that he had an Engliſh pilot given him at Boſton, and it was aſſured that the people of that place were very uneaſy that the French ſhould continue maſters of Peutageot and Fort St. John. In 1680 both theſe places were reſtored, for the fourth time, to the French by the Engliſh, and afterwards a ſmall town was erected at Port Royal; which from that time became the capital of the government, which, beſides Acadia, comprehended all the ſouthern coaſt of New France; but always, ſays Charlevoix, ſubject to the governor-general. The Engliſh, on the contrary, made continual encroachments, and after the reſtitution of Peutageot, they built between this poſt and Kinibequi, a good fort in a place called Penkuit. The Abenaquis, to whom this territory belonged, were very much diſpleaſed at it; and the Engliſh ſoon found troubleſome neighbours to theſe ſavages. They thought, that in order to have nothing to fear, they ſhould ſet theſe at variance with the Iroquois, who did not require much entreaties to enter into a war with the Abenaquis; and thoſe being too weak to oppoſe the Engliſh and Iroquois at the ſame time, were obliged to enter into an accommodation with the former. The governor of Fort Penkuit carried his pretenſions

tenſions further, and found no obſtacle in his way: thus Acadia was not ſupported either on the part of Quebec, or that of France: ſo that Peutageot, and the fort in the river of St. John, were taken without ſtriking a blow. The inhabitants of Port Royal, who ſaw the ſtorm ready to burſt upon their heads, reſolved to enter into a treaty with the Engliſh, without M. de la Valliere, their commander, being able to hinder them: and thus the Engliſh, ſays the ſame French author, became masters, the fifth time, of Acadia, and all that tract which ſeparates it from New England.

GEORGIA, a large tract of land in Carolina, on the borders of Spaniſh Florida, in North America. It is ſeparated from South Carolina by the river Savannah on the N. has the Atlantic ocean on the E. is bounded by Indian Florida on the W. and parted from Spaniſh Florida on the S. by the river Alatamacha. Its extent is 170 miles from N. to S. near the ſea, but widens in the more remote parts to above 150, and is 300 from the middle part of the ſea-coaſt to the Apalachian mountains, or not much ſhort of it, and ſtretches out on the N. W. even as far as the river Miſſiſſippi.

In 1732, ſome perſons diſtinguiſhed not only by their families and fortunes, but by their public ſpirit, and univerſal benevolence, pitying the diſtreſſes of great numbers of people in theſe kingdoms, who had no means of ſubſiſtence, bent their thoughts to conſider how they might be employed, both for their own good, and that of the public; and being fully convinced, that this country, inferior to none of our poſſeſſions on the continent of North America for climate and

ſituation,

ſituation, was the moſt capable of becoming a fruitful, populous, and uſeful tract, though then lying entirely waſte, and over-run with vaſt woods, which ſheltered a few Indians, runaway negroes, and other banditti: being moreover convinced, that when theſe woods were in a great meaſure cleared, there could not be a more pleaſant or fruitful country in the world; that a colony planted here would alſo be of unſpeakable advantage to our ſettlements in Carolina, by becoming an effectual frontier againſt the Spaniards and French, or the incurſions of the Indians inſtigated by either; the want of which ſecurity they had greatly complained of. The government had it likewiſe in their view to raiſe wine, oil, and ſilk, and turn the induſtry of this new people for the timber and proviſion trade, which the other colonies had carried on too largely, into channels more advantageous to the public. From theſe, and many other important reaſons, theſe gentlemen were induced to apply to his preſent majeſty George II. who was pleaſed to grant them a charter, dated the 9th of June 1732, conſtituting them a corporation under the name of Truſtees for eſtabliſhing a colony in Georgia; which included all that country ſituated in South Carolina, which lies from the moſt northern ſtream of the river Savannah, along the coaſt, to the moſt ſouthern ſtream of the Alatamacha, and W. from the ſources of the ſaid rivers, reſpectively in direct lines, as far as the South, or Pacific ſea. The charter granted the corporation the term of 21 years from its date, during which they were impowered to appoint all ſuch governors and other officers, both by ſea and land, as they thought fit, (the cuſtom-

houſe

houſe officers excepted) provided that every ſuch governor be approved of by his majeſty: and that the militia of the country be ſubject in the mean time to the governor of South Carolina: but that after the expiration of the 21 years, the governor and all other officers ſhould be nominated and appointed by the crown, and the property in chief revert to it. The ſaid charter having impowered them alſo to have a common ſeal, the truſtees had one with the following devices, namely, on one ſide two figures of rivers reſting upon urns, and repreſenting the Alatamacha and Savannah, the N. and S. boundaries of Georgia; and between theſe the genius of the colony, ſitting with the cap of liberty on her head, a ſpear in one hand, and a cornucopia in the other, with this motto, 'Colonia 'Georgia Auguſta;' on the reverſe are ſilk worms at work with this motto, 'non ſibi ſed 'aliis.' The truſtees being impowered alſo by by their charter to collect benefactions, and lay them out in cloathing, arming, ſending out, and ſupporting colonies of poor people, whether ſubjects or foreigners, till they could build houſes, and clear lands; they not only ſubſcribed liberally themſelves, but obtained conſiderable ſums from other well diſpoſed people, and had a grant of 10,000l. from the parliament. All this the truſtees employed in the proper neceſſaries for tranſporting a colony into a country, of which they had previouſly publiſhed a moſt exaggerated and flattering deſcription. In reality the country differs little from South Carolina, only that the ſummers are hotter, and the ſoil in general of a poorer kind. The colony was ſent over under the care of Mr. Oglethorpe, who very

very generouſly beſtowed his own time and pains without any reward, for the advancemant of the ſettlement; and in November following went over with 116 poor people, moſtly huſbandmen, carpenters, bricklayers, and other workmen; who were not only furniſhed with their working tools, but inſtructed in military diſcipline, well fitted out with ſmall arms and ſtores; beſides tools for erecting fortreſſes, and 74 pieces of cannon for defending them. They were beſides furniſhed with 12 tons of Parſons's beſt beer, and were alſo to ſtop at the Madeiras to take in wine. Large ſums were afterwards collected, and 25,000 l. at one time granted by parliament for the ſupport of the planters. The Swiſs, Saltburghers, and other foreign proteſtants, as well as the Britiſh planters, were furniſhed by the truſtees with neceſſaries, till by their labour, and the produce of the country, they were able to ſubſiſt themſelves.

The truſtees having reſolved upon the laying out of towns, aſſigned to every inhabitant a lot of 25 acres of land, as near as poſſible to his town. But having very well obſerved that many of our colonies, eſpecially that of South Carolina, had been very much endangered, both internally and externally, by ſuffering the negroes to grow ſo much more numerous than the whites, an error of this kind they judged, in a colony which was not only to defend itſelf, but to be in ſome ſort a protection to the others, would have been inexcuſable: they for that reaſon forbid the importation of negroes into Georgia. In the next place they obſerved that great miſchiefs happened in the other ſettlements from making vaſt grants of land, which the grantees jobbed out again, to

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the discouragement of the settlers; or what was worse, suffered to lie idle and uncultivated. To avoid this mischief, and prevent the people from becoming wealthy and luxurious, which they thought inconsistent with the military plan upon which this colony was founded, they allowed in the common course to each family but 25 acres, as has been said: and none could, according to the original scheme, by any means come to possess more than 500: neither did they give an inheritance in fee simple, or to the heirs general of the settlers; but granted them the lands inheritable only by their male issue. They likewise forbid the importation of rum into the province, to prevent the great disorders which they observed to arise in the other parts of North America. These regulations, though well intended, and meant to bring about very excellent purposes; yet might at first, as it afterwards plainly appeared, that they were made without sufficiently consulting the nature of this country, or the disposition of the people which they regarded. For in the first place, as the climate is excessively hot, and field-work very laborious in a new colony, as the ground must be cleared, tilled, and sown, all with great and incessant toil, for their bare subsistence, the load was too heavy for the white men, especially men who had not been seasoned to the country: the consequence of which was, that the greatest part of their time, namely, all the heat of the day, was spent in idleness, which brought certain want with it. It is true that all our colonies on the continent, even Virginia and Carolina, were originally settled without the help of negroes. The white men were obliged to the labour, and they

they underwent it, becauſe they then ſaw no other way: but it is the nature of man not to ſubmit to extraordinary hardſhips in one ſpot, when they ſee their neighbours on another, without any difference in the circumſtances of things, in a much more eaſy condition. Beſides, no methods were taken to animate them under the hardſhips they endured. All things contributed to diſpirit them.

A levelling ſcheme in a new colony is a thing extremely unadviſeable. Men are ſeldom induced to leave their country, but upon ſome extraordinary proſpects. The majority of mankind muſt always be indigent; but in a new ſettlement they muſt be all ſo, unleſs ſome perſons are on ſuch a comfortable and ſubſtantial footing as to give direction and vigour to the induſtry of the reſt. Perſons of ſubſtance found themſelves diſcouraged from attempting a ſettlement, by the narrow bounds which no induſtry could enable them to paſs; and the deſign of confirming the inheritance to the male line was an additional diſcouragement. The ſettlers found themſelves not upon a par with the other colonies. There was an obvious inconvenience in leaving no proviſion at all for females, as in a new colony the land muſt be, for ſome time at leaſt, the only wealth of the family. The quantity of 25 acres was undoubtedly too ſmall a portion, as it was given without any conſideration of the quality of the land; and was therefore in many places of very little value: add to this, that it was clogged, after a ſhort free tenure, with a much greater quit-rent than is paid in our beſt and longeſt ſettled colonies. Indeed, through the whole manner of granting land, there appeared I know not what

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low attention to the trifling profits that might be derived to the truſtees or the crown by rents and eſcheats, which clogged the liberal ſcheme that was firſt laid down, and was in itſelf extremely injudicious.

The entailed male grants were ſo grievous, that the truſtees themſelves corrected that error in a ſhort time. The prohibition of rum, though ſpecious in appearance, had a very bad effect. The waters in this unſettled country running through ſuch an extent of foreſt, were not wholeſome drinking, and wanted the corrective of a little ſpirits, as the ſettlers themſelves wanted ſomething to ſupport their ſtrength in the extraordinary and unuſual heat of the climate, and its dampneſs in ſeveral places diſpoſing their bodies to agues and fevers. But what was worſe, this prohibition in a manner deprived them of the only vent they had for ſuch few commodities as they could ſend to market, namely, lumber and corn, which could ſell no where but in the ſugar iſlands; and under this reſtriction of negroes and rum, they could take very little from them in return.

Theſe and ſeveral other inconveniencies in the plan of this ſettlement, raiſed a general diſcontent in the inhabitants; they quarrelled with one another, and with their magiſtrates; they complained; they remonſtrated; and finding no redreſs, many of them fled out of Georgia, and diſperſed themſelves, where they deemed the encouragement better, to all the other colonies: ſo that of above 2000 people who had tranſported themſelves from Europe, in a little time not above 6 or 700 were to be found in Georgia. The miſchief grew worſe and worſe every day, till

till the government revoked the grant to the truſtees, took the province into their own hands, and annulled all the particular regulations that had been made. It was then left on the ſame footing with Carolina.

Though this ſtep has probably ſaved the colony from entire ruin, yet it was not perhaps ſo well done to neglect entirely the firſt views upon which it was ſettled: theſe were undoubtedly judicious; and if the methods taken to compaſs them were not ſo well directed, this was an argument not againſt the deſigns themſelves, but a reaſon for ſome change in the inſtruments deſigned to put them in execution. Certainly nothing wants a regulation more than the dangerous inequality in the number of negroes and whites, in ſuch of our provinces where the former are uſed. South Carolina, in ſpite of its great wealth, is really in a more defenceleſs condition than a knot of poor townſhips on the frontiers of New England. In Georgia, the firſt error of abſolutely prohibiting the uſe of negroes might be turned to very good account; for they would have received the permiſſion for employing them under what qualifications ſoever, not as a reſtriction, but as a favour and indulgence: and by ſtrictly executing whatever regulations we ſhould make in this point, by degrees we might ſee a province fit to anſwer all the ends of defence and traffic too: whereas we have let them uſe ſuch a latitude in that affair, which we were ſo earneſt to prevent, that Georgia, inſtead of being any defence to Carolina, actually ſtands in need of a conſiderable force to defend itſelf.

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With regard to the ſcheme of vines and ſilk, we were extremely eager in this reſpect in the beginning; and very ſupine ever ſince. At that time ſuch a deſign was clearly impracticable, becauſe a few people ſeated in a wild country muſt firſt provide every thing for the ſupport of life, by raiſing of corn, and breeding of cattle, before they can think of manufactures of any kind: and they muſt grow numerous enough to ſpare a number of hands from that moſt neceſſary employment, before they can ſend ſuch things in any degree of cheapneſs or plenty to a good market: but now little is ſaid of either of theſe articles, though the province is longer ſettled, and grown more populous.

At preſent Georgia is beginning to emerge, though ſlowly, out of the difficulties that attended its firſt eſtabliſhment. It is ſtill but indifferently peopled, though it is now upwards of 28 years ſince its firſt ſettlement. Not one of our colonies was of ſo ſlow a growth, though none had ſo much of the attention of the government, or of the people in general, or raiſed ſo great expectations in the beginning. They export ſome corn and lumber to the Weſt Indies; they raiſe ſome rice, and of late have gone with ſucceſs into indigo. It is not to be doubted but in time, when their internal diviſions are a little better compoſed, the remaining errors in the government corrected, and the people begin to multiply, that they will become an uſeful province. But in order to ſee the juſtneſs of ſome part of the above reflections, it will be neceſſary to reſume the thread of hiſtory, with regard to the ſettlement of Georgia. Before Mr. Oglethorpe's arrival in this country with the firſt colony,

lony, in January 1732-3, (having in February following fixed at a town on the banks of the river Savannah, and given it that name) it was by the natives called Yammacraw, from an Indian nation, whoſe chief, Tomo-chichi, who had been baniſhed with others from his own country, readily admitted and entered into a cloſe friendſhip with him: which was the more agreeable to both parties, as there was no other Indian nation within 50 miles. About this time alſo the chief men of the Lower Creek nation, conſiſting of eight tribes, who are allied together, and ſpeak the ſame language, though each under a diſtinct government, came to the number of 50 perſons with their attendants, (ſome of them after a journey of five days) to make an alliance with this colony. Theſe Indians laid claim from the Savannah river as far as St. Auguſtine, and up Flint river, which falls into the bay of Mexico. They addreſſed Mr. Oglethorpe by one of their monarchs, whom the Engliſh called Long King, as being tall; in which ſpeech he firſt claimed all the land to the S. of the river Savannah; and concluded with ſaying that they freely gave the Engliſh up their right to all the land they did not uſe themſelves. Then the chief men laid before Mr. Oglethorpe a bundle of buck-ſkins, being one from each of their eight tribes, which they ſaid was the beſt preſent they had to make, and which they gave with a good heart. The long king did not forget to thank him for his kindneſs to his couſin Tomo-chichi and his Indians; ſaying, that though he was baniſhed from his nation, he was a good man, and had been a great warrior, and

that

that the baniſhed men had choſe him their king for his wiſdom and juſtice.

Next Tomo-chichi advanced with the Yammacraw Indians, who were of the Creek nation and language, as did other chiefs, when articles of alliance and commerce were agreed on; and they were diſmiſſed with preſents, beſides eight cags of rum for their reſpective towns. By this treaty the rates of goods were ſettled; reparation to be made for injuries on both ſides; criminals to be tried and puniſhed by the Engliſh law; the trade was to be withdrawn from any Indian town offending againſt the treaty. Finally, the Indians promiſed, with true hearts and love to the Engliſh brethren, to encourage no other white people to ſettle in their country: and to all this they ſet the marks of their reſpective families.

Next year alſo an alliance was made with another Indian nation in this country, called the Natchees; which tended very much to the ſecurity of the colony. And the ſame year the planters reaped their firſt crop of Indian corn, which yielded them 1000 buſhels.

Mr. Oglethorpe, in a letter to a perſon of honour in London, gives the following character of the Creek Indians, with whom, eſpecially their chiefs, he had ſome time converſed.

Their morals, ſays he, were ſo good, that I thought nothing was wanting to convert them to chriſtianity, but a divine who underſtood their language. They abhor murder and adultery; they diſapprove of polygamy, and know nothing of theft; though it is frequent, and even reckoned honourable by their neighbours the Natchees. Revenge and drunkenneſs ſeem to be their moſt favourite vices: though they do not think that

any injury, except murder or adultery, deſerves the former. As to adultery, they think the injured huſband has a right to revenge by cutting off the adulterer's ears: and if he cannot do this, to kill him the firſt time he can do it with ſafety. As to murder, the next in blood is obliged to kill the murderer, elſe he is treated by his nation as infamous. And ſo weak is the executive power among them, that there is no other way to revenge the ſhedding of blood. For their kings can do no more than perſuade, all the power they have being to aſſemble their old men and captains for their advice, in which they generally come to ſome unanimous reſolution, or elſe break up the conferences without determining any thing. They ſeem, both in expreſſion and action to be thorough maſters of the oratory which we ſo much admire in the Greeks and Romans: their ſpeeches are generally adorned with ſimilies and metaphors: but in the conferences among the chief men, they are more laconic. In fine, they generally addreſs themſelves to the paſſions of the youth, and the reaſon of the old men. For inſtance, ſays Mr. Oglethorpe, Tomo-chichi in his firſt ſpeech ſaid to me among other things, 'here is a ſmall preſent:' and then he gave me a buffalo's ſkin, painted on the inſide with the head and feathers of an eagle, which he deſired me to accept, becauſe the eagle denoted ſpeed, and the buffalo ſtrength: that the Engliſh were as ſwift as the bird, and as ſtrong as the beaſt: ſince, like the firſt, they flew from the utmoſt parts of the earth over the vaſt ſeas; and, like the ſecond, nothing could withſtand them. That the feathers of the eagle were ſoft, and ſignified love: the buffalo's ſkin warm, and ſignified

protection; and therefore he hoped, that we would love and protect their little families.

Mr. Oglethorpe returning to England, in 1734, with Tomo-chichi, his wife queen Senauki, their son Tooana-kowki, one of their war-captains, and five other Indian chiefs, Tomo-chichi had an audience of his majesty at Kensington on the first day of August, when he made a speech, in which he told the king, 'that 'he was come for the good of the whole nation 'called the Creeks, to renew the peace which 'subsisted long ago with the English. I am 'come over, continued he, in such old days, that 'I cannot live to see any advantage of it to myself: I am come for the good of the children of 'all the nations of the Upper and Lower Creeks. 'These are the feathers of the eagle, which is 'the swiftest of birds, and flieth all round our 'nations: these feathers are an emblem of peace 'in our land, where they have been carried from 'town to town: and we have brought them over 'to leave with you, O Great King, as a sign of 'everlasting peace. O Great King, whatsoever 'words you shall say unto me, I will tell them 'faithfully to all the kings of the Creek nations.' His majesty returned a most gracious answer, as did likewise the queen, whom he addressed as follows.

'I am glad to see this day, to have the opportunity of beholding the mother of this great 'people. As our people are joined with your 'majesty's, we do humbly hope to find you the 'common mother and protectress of us, and all 'our children.'

The attendants of Tomo-chichi would willingly have appeared at court, as they commonly

go in their country, which is quite naked, except a covering round their waiſt; but were diſſuaded from it by Mr. Oglethorpe. However, their faces were variouſly painted, after their country faſhion; ſome half black, others with triangular figures, and others with bearded arrows inſtead of whiſkers. Tomo-chichi and his wife were dreſſed in ſcarlet trimmed with gold. They dined ſoon after with the lady Dutry at Pultney, and then waited on the archbiſhop of Canterbury; but his grace being very weak, Tomo-chichi only deſired his bleſſing; and in a conference with his ſon-in-law Dr. Lynch, he expreſſed great joy to him, as believing that ſome good perſons would be ſent among them, in order to inſtruct their youth.

Theſe Indians, particularly Tomo-chichi, ſhewed, during their ſtay here, that they were men of good ſenſe, and beſides hearty well-wiſhers to a friendly correſpondence betwixt this nation and theirs; and deſired of the truſtees, that the weights, meaſures, prices, and qualities of goods to be purchaſed by them with their deer and other ſkins might be ſettled; and that no body might be allowed to trade with the Indians in Georgia without a licence from the truſtees; that the Indians, in caſe of injury or fraud, might know where to complain. They further deſired, that there might be but one ſtorehouſe in each Indian town, from which the traders might ſupply them with goods at the fixed rates, becauſe they ſaid the traders had often arbitrarily raiſed the prices of their goods, and given them ſhort weight and meaſures; and, by their impoſitions of this kind, created frequent animoſities between the Engliſh and the Indians; which

which had often ended in wars prejudicial to both of them. Upon these remonstrances the trustees prepared the following acts, which being laid before the king and council in January 1735, were, after a report from the board of trade, ratified by his majesty. 1. An act for maintaining the peace with the Indians in the province of Georgia. 2. An act to prevent the importation and use of rum and brandy in that province, or any kind of spirits, or strong waters. 3. An act for rendering the colony more defensible, by prohibiting the importation of negroes.

October 30, 1734, Tomo-chichi, &c. being conducted in the king's coaches to Gravesend, embarked for their own country, after four months stay in England; during which time they were allowed by his majesty 20l. a week for their subsistence, and were very magnificently entertained, not only by the court, but by several persons of distinction: and every thing remarkable in London and Westminster shewn them, in order to give them a just idea of English politeness, and of our nation's regard for the Creeks; in return for which they promised inviolable attachment and fidelity to the British nation. They carried presents from henee to the value of 400l. and the duke of Cumberland, then but 13 years of age, presenting the young prince Tooana-kowki with a gold watch, told him at the same time to call upon Jesus Christ every morning when he looked upon it; which he promised to do. In the same ship went with them 56 Saltzburghers, who, with another body of them that followed not long after, settled in a town by them called Ebenezer, upon the river Savannah:

and by their ſobriety and induſtry have become a thriving ſettlement.

In 1735, a ſhip from Georgia brought over to England a ſpeech made there by one of the Indian kings of Cherrikaw, &c. It was curiouſly written in red and black characters on the ſkin of a young buffalo, and tranſlated into Engliſh as ſoon as delivered in the Indian language, in preſence of above 50 of their chiefs, and of the principal inhabitants of Savannah. The ſaid ſkin was ſet in a frame, and hung up in the Georgia office in Weſtminſter. It contained the Indians grateful acknowledgments for the honours and civilities paid to Tomo-chichi, &c. their admiration of the grandeur of the Britiſh court and kingdom; and expreſſed their great happineſs in Mr. Oglethorpe's coming among them.

The truſtees of Georgia being encouraged by an extraordinary ſupply of 20,000 l. granted by parliament, and conſiderable benefactions, as well in Carolina as in England, began to think of making very conſiderable embarkations to ſtrengthen the S. part of Georgia; and reſolved that theſe ſhould moſtly be of people from the N. of Scotland, and perſecuted German proteſtants, in order to obviate any objection that might be made againſt ſending our own poor away. In purſuance of which, not only the above-mentioned Saltzburghers, but 160 Scots highlanders, were ſent over in 1735, the latter of which arrived in Georgia the January of the year following, and ſettled on the Alatamha river, 16 miles by water from the iſland of St. Simon, in a diſtrict which, at their deſire, is to this day called Darien, where they ſoon after built a town, to which they gave the name of New Inverneſs.

Next

Next month Mr. Oglethorpe arrived again in Georgia from England with 47 persons, who were settled on the island of St. Simon; and hands were set to work on building the town of Frederica. He was welcomed by Tomo-chichi, &c. and the Creek Indians, who came down upon this occasion; and in consequence of their claim of right to this country, were treated with; and accordingly agreed that the English should possess not only St. Simon's, but all the adjacent islands.

In the same month of February the Saltzburghers were, at their own request, removed by Mr. Oglethorpe from Ebenezer to a place they liked better, at the mouth of the river, where he marked out another town for them called by the same name.

In September following a treaty was concluded between Mr. Oglethorpe and the governor of St. Augustin, by which it was particularly stipulated, that the English garrison and artillery should be withdrawn from the island of St. George, (which lies near the influx of St. John's river and the Atlantic ocean, 40 miles N. of Augustin) provided that none of the king of Spain's subjects, or other persons, should inhabit or fortify the said island: and that it should not prejudice the right of the king of Great Britain to the said island, or any other of his dominions, or the claims of his majesty to the continent.

In the spring of the year 1737, upon advice from Carolina, that notwithstanding the late treaty, which it seems was not relished at the court of Madrid, the Spaniards were preparing at St. Augustin and the Havannah to make an attack on the colony of Georgia, his majesty

ordered a regiment of 600 men to be ſent to Georgia: and, for their encouragement, the truſtees of the colony made a grant for an allotment of five acres in land to each of theſe ſoldiers, to cultivate for his own uſe and benefit, during their continuance in this ſervice: and reſolved that if any one was inclined to quit it at the end of ſeven years, and ſettle in the colony, he ſhould not only have a regular diſcharge, but, on a proper certificate of his good behaviour, be entitled to a grant of 20 acres of land. This year alſo the parliament granted the colony another ſupply of 20,000 l. and the truſtees ſent off another embarkation of perſecuted German proteſtants: in conſequence of which, among other meaſures taken for defence of the colony, a conſiderable fort was begun at Savannah.

The truſtees, who had by letters and inſtructions to the magiſtrates of Georgia, conſtantly exhorted and encouraged the people to a cultivation of their land, as that on which they were ſolely to depend for their ſupport, ſtruck off from the ſtore all ſuch as had neglected it; which carried off many of the colony, who had gone thither from the mother-country, or had joined it from other parts of our American colonies, purely to gain a year or two's ſubſiſtence; and alſo ſeveral others, who, for want of conſidering the hardſhips that attended the firſt ſettlement of a country, were weary of their labour.

In March 1738, the truſtees of Georgia, upon finding that the people of the colony were uneaſy at the tenure of their lots being confined to heirs male, reſolved, that in default of ſuch iſſue, the legal poſſeſſor of any land might by his laſt will, or other written deed, appoint his daughter,

daughter, or any other female relation, his ſucceſſor, provided that the lot ſo granted and deviſed ſhould be perſonally claimed in the proper court in Georgia, within 18 months after the death of the grantor or deviſor. And ſoon after this, every legal poſſeſſor was impowered to appoint any other perſon as his ſucceſſor.

In September 1739, they alſo cauſed it to be publiſhed in the London Gazette, as they did afterwards in that of Carolina, 'That the 'lands already, or hereafter to be granted, 'ſhould not only, on failure of male iſſue, de-'ſcend to the daughters of ſuch grantees; but if 'there were no iſſue, either male or female, the 'grantees might deviſe ſuch lands: and that, for 'want of ſuch deviſe, ſuch lands ſhould deſcend 'to the heirs at law; provided that the poſſeſſion 'of the perſon who enjoyed ſuch deviſe ſhould 'not be increaſed to more than 500 acres: and 'that the widows of the grantees ſhould hold 'and enjoy the dwelling-houſe, garden, and 'one moiety of the lands their huſbands ſhould 'die poſſeſſed of, for the term of their lives.' And moreover, to ſhew how very deſirous the truſtees were of giving the people of this colony all the ſatisfaction imaginable, they cauſed it to be added, that no fee or reward ſhould be taken directly or indirectly for entering ſuch claim by any perſons whatſoever.

In the mean time the inhabitants of Frederica had, in three days, cut a road of ſix miles through thick woods from the town to the ſoldiers fort. In October, Tomo-chichi, together with four other Indian kings of the Creeks, 30 of their warriors, and 52 attendants, waited on general Oglethorpe at Savannah; and acquainted

him, that though the Spaniards had decoyed them to St. Auguſtin, on pretence that he was there, and offered them great preſents to fall out with the Engliſh, they adhered inviolably in their fidelity to his Britannic majeſty; and that the Creek nation would march 1000 warriors wherever he would command them. As the Indian traders who came amongſt them from Carolina uſed bad weights, they deſired that general Oglethorpe would order them braſs weights and ſealed meaſures, which ſhould be lodged with each of the reſpective kings: and at the ſame time invited him to come up the enſuing ſummer to ſee their towns; which he accordingly promiſed to do. After the general had made them handſome preſents, they danced all night, and ſet out next day for the towns which lie 400 miles to the W. of Savannah.

Next year the general, in compliance with their invitation, travelled through a country very little known, and very difficult for Europeans, to the town of Coneta, though not leſs than 500 miles from Frederica. Here he conferred not only with the chiefs of all the tribes of this nation, but alſo with the deputies of the Chectaws, and Chickeſaws, who lie between the Engliſh and French ſettlements: and on the 21ſt of Auguſt he made a new treaty with the nations of the Lower Creeks, more ample than the former; which we ſhall the rather inſert, as it ſhews the ſituation and limits of the Creek nation, as ſet out by themſelves.

The whole eſtates, after unanimouſly declaring that they adhered in their ancient love to the king of Great Britain, and to the agreements made in 1733 with the truſtees, farther declared, that

that all the dominions, territories, and lands, from the Savannah river to St. John's river, and all the intermediate iſlands, and from St. John's river to the bay of Apalache, and from thence to the mountains, do by ancient right belong to the Creek nations, who have maintained poſſeſſion of it againſt all oppoſers by war, and can ſhew heaps of the bones of their enemies by them ſlain in defence of their land. And they further declared, that neither Spaniards, nor any other nation, have any right to the ſaid land; and that they will not ſuffer them, or any other perſon, except the truſtees of Georgia, to ſettle on the ſaid lands. And they acknowledge the grant which they have already made to the ſaid truſtees of all the land upon the Savannah river as far as the river Ogeeche; and all the lands along the ſea-coaſts as far as St. John's river, and as high as the tide flows, and all the iſlands as far as the ſaid river, particularly the iſlands of Frederica, Cumberland, and Amelia, to which they have given the names of his Britannic majeſty's family, out of gratitude to him: but they declare, that they did, and do reſerve to the Creek nation all the land from Pipe-makers-Bluff to Savannah, and the iſlands of St. Catherine, Oſſebow, and Sappalo. And they further declare, that the ſaid lands are held by the Creek nation as tenants in common: and Mr. Oglethorpe doth declare, that the Engliſh ſhall not enlarge or take up any lands, except thoſe granted as above to the truſtees by the Creek nation, and will puniſh any perſon that ſhall intrude upon the lands ſo reſerved.

This ſame year, namely, 1739, Mr. Augſpourger, a Swiſs, brought over from Georgia a

parcel of raw ſilk, and depoſed before a maſter in chancery, that he received it from Thomas Jones the truſtees ſtore-keeper at Savannah, who told him it was the produce of Georgia; which being ſhewn to an eminent ſilk-weaver, and a raw ſilk merchant, they declared it was as fine as any Italian ſilk, and worth at leaſt 20 ſhillings a pound.

This year alſo the truſtees extended the tenures ſo far, that the daughter of any grantee, or any other perſon, was made capable of enjoying, by deviſe or inheritance, any number of acres not exceeding 2000. A licence was alſo granted to all the land-owners in Georgia, to leaſe out any part of their lots, for any term not exceeding three years; and that to any perſon then residing in Georgia, and who ſhould hereafter reſide there during the term of ſuch leaſe.

A general releaſe was likewiſe paſſed afterwards, by which no advantage was to be taken againſt any of the preſent land-owners in Georgia, for any forfeiture incurred at any time before Chriſtmas 1740, on account of the tenure or cultivation of land: and the poſſeſſors of 500 acres were not obliged to cultivate more than 120 acres thereof in 20 years from their grants: and thoſe who had under 500 acres, and above 50, to cultivate in proportion, in order to prevent any forfeiture for want of cultivating the quantities required. Thus the freeholders in Georgia are really become tenants in tail general; and have more power than is commonly given in marriage-ſettlements, becauſe they may, with the licence of the common council of the truſtees, mortgage or alienate; and, without any application, have it abſolutely in their power, on failure

failure of iſſue in tail, to diſpoſe thereof by their laſt will.

Thus have we traced the hiſtory of this new colony of Georgia from its firſt ſettlement to the preſent time; whence it will appear, among other things, how much the public is intereſted in the ſupport of ſuch a barrier as Georgia is, by its natural ſituation, to other northern colonies on the continent. And the importance of this ſettlement to Great Britain will be further evident, when it is conſidered, that it has proved the moſt effectual expedient poſſible for ſecuring the Indian nations in its intereſt, which inhabit the vaſt countries to the W. of Georgia; eſpecially conſidering the views which the French had of the ſame kind, who thought, in a little time, to have completed that chain of correſpondence, and indeed of contiguity between their colonies of Canada and Louiſiana, on which their being formidable to us in North America abſolutely depended: ſince, if they had brought their ſcheme to bear, they would have ſurrounded all our colonies on the continent from Nova Scotia to Georgia. But by this ſettlement we ſeem to have broke the links of their intended chain, by engaging in our intereſt thoſe very Indian nations that are moſt capable of doing them ſervice, and hurting us; particularly the faithful and brave nations of the Upper and Lower Creeks, a country ſo called from its being interſected with rivers, and extending from that of the Savannah to the lakes of Florida, the Cherokees mountains, and the river Couſſa.

The weſtern boundary of Georgia is all that territory claimed by the French in Louiſiana, and by the Spaniards in Florida. The land of this

province, lying low near the ſea, is covered with woods; but begins to riſe into hills at the diſtance of 25 miles from the ſhore, which at length terminate in mountains, running in a line from N. to S. on the back of Virginia and Carolina, and ending in Georgia, about 200 miles from the Apalachee bay, in the gulph of Mexico. The country being level from the foot of thoſe mountains to the ſea, made it neceſſary to fortify the banks of the Savannah and Alatamha, in order to prevent the incurſions of the French and Spaniards by land. Canoes may ſail on the former river for 600 miles, and boats for 300. The coaſt of Georgia is defended from the fury of the ocean by a range of iſlands running along it; and the iſlands and continent being well furniſhed with wood, the intermediate channel is very delightful. Upwards of 70 miles from the coaſt of Georgia are ſand-banks, and the water ſhoaling gradually, till within ſix miles of land, the banks are ſo ſhallow as to be further impracticable, except in the channels between theſe bars; which were thought a ſufficient defence againſt an enemy's fleet: yet, in July 1742, the Spaniards, to the number of 5 or 6000 men, beſides Indians, in about 50 veſſels from St. Auguſtine, after paſſing theſe channels, made a deſcent upon Georgia; particularly they attacked the iſland of St. Simon, which, with the town of Frederica, would have been loſt, had it been not for the bravery of the Engliſh and good conduct of general Oglethorpe, who, aſſiſted by a ſmall body of Indians, under the command of Tomo-chichi's ſon, ſoon repulſed them, and utterly fruſtrated their ſcheme: and though one of the forts of St. Simon was abandoned

doned upon this invaſion of the Spaniards, yet upon the general's approach they abandoned it with ſome precipitation.

Georgia has not a very fertile ſoil; but is a good barrier, as has been ſaid, againſt the French and Spaniards, with their Indian allies; for which reaſon the parliament of Great Britain have at different times, as has been already ſhewn, granted conſiderable ſums for planting and fortifying it: but miſunderſtandings ariſing between the general and the government of South Carolina, (of which private animoſity we had but too many fatal inſtances in the late war with Spain) this colony is not in ſuch a defenſible ſtate as to reſiſt the attacks of the French and Spaniards; and beſides, the general was not ſupplied with the neceſſary ſtores, nor properly ſeconded by thoſe moſt nearly concerned in the event of his enterpriſes.

After paſſing the above-mentioned bars, ſhips meet with a ſecure and commodious harbour in the mouth of the Savannah river; and to the S. of it is a ſtill more capacious road, called Tekyſound, where a large fleet may anchor in between 10 and 14 fathoms water, being landlocked, and having a ſafe entrance over the bar. The tide of flood generally riſes on this coaſt to ſeven feet.

In Georgia are ſeveral towns already built by the truſtees of that colony; particularly two already known in trade, namely, Savannah and Auguſta, beſides Ebenezer, which ſee; all three ſituated on the river of the former name. Savannah is the capital of the colony: and in the S. diviſion of Georgia is Frederica, on the iſland of St. Simon, in the mouth of the river

Ala-

Alatamha, with ſeveral forts to defend the iſland and neighbouring country.

The reverend Mr. John Weſtley, who a few years ago was miniſter of Savannah, to which he went over with Mr. Oglethorpe, and had a particular conference there with ſome of the chiefs of the Chickeſaw Indians, gives us an account of their ſenſe of a divine providence in the following particulars; and how well they were thereby prepared for receiving the goſpel. They ſaid they believed that there are four beloved things above; namely the clouds, the ſun, the clear ſky, and he who lives in it; that he made all men at firſt out of the ground; that if he will, he can ſave men from their enemies, be they ever ſo numerous, and deſtroy them all. They acknowledged that when bullets flew thick on each ſide of them, and though they had even entered the bodies of ſome of them, he (the good-being) did not ſuffer them to hurt the one, or kill the other: that when their enemies came againſt them, the beloved clouds came in their behalf: ſo that much rain had often fallen upon them, and ſometimes hail, and that in a very hot day: that when many French and Indians came againſt one of their towns, the beloved ground made a noiſe under them, and the beloved ones in the air behind them, like that of drums, guns, and ſhoutings; whereupon their enemies were afraid, and all went away, leaving their proviſions and guns behind them. The Indians added, that they always think of theſe beloved ones wherever they are: that they talk of them, and to them abroad and at home, in peace, in war, before and after battle; and indeed whenever, or whereever, they meet.

They

They believed, that the ſouls of bad men walked up and down the place where they died, or where their bodies lie: and that there are only a few whom the beloved one chuſes for children, and is in them, takes care of them, and teaches them.

We ſhall next proceed to the natural hiſtory of Georgia. This country produces Indian corn, as alſo wheat, oats, and barley, of which the two laſt grains grow beſt. Very good wheat is likewiſe reaped in May; and they mow the graſs in June. Here are potatoes, pumkins, water and muſk melons, cucumbers, all ſorts of Engliſh green peaſe (which, with proper care and culture, may be had almoſt the whole year round) and garden-beans, but the Windſor ſort will not flouriſh here; Indian peaſe, all ſorts of ſallading the year round, and all ſorts of ſweet herbs, and pot-herbs: rice too, were it proper, might be cultivated here with ſucceſs. Here are nectarines, plums, and peaches; which three, eſpecially the laſt, are almoſt as common as apple-trees are in Herefordſhire. The plums are ripe the beginning of May; peaches and nectarines the latter end of June. Here are no hazle-nuts, but chincapins very ſweet and good; wild grapes in abundance, which are ripe in June; as alſo four or five ſorts of good windberries; preſimmins, much like our medlars; wild cherries, that grow in ſprays like currans, and are not much larger, but taſte like a ſmall black cherry, and are ripe in May. Here are a few Engliſh cherries in the gardens and orchards; alſo apple, pear, and a few apricot-trees: many of the apple-trees bear twice a year; but the latter

latter crop is ſmall. Here are great quantities of white mulberry-trees, the fruit of which is not to compare with thoſe of England, though the leaves are the beſt food for the ſilk worms. Olives flouriſh here in the greateſt perfection; and ſo do oranges, eſpecially in the S. part of the province, where an orange-tree has been known, in ſeven years, to riſe 15 feet from the root to the branches. The chief timber-trees are pines in abundance, ſix or ſeven ſpecies of oaks, hiccory, black walnut, cedar, white and black cypreſs, white and red laurels, bays, myrtle, of whoſe berries they make candles; ſaſſifras, an infuſion of which makes good drink; beech-trees, and many others which have no particular name. In ſome places here the land is as good as any in England, were there but hands enough to cultivate it.

This country affords a great deal of wild game, particularly in winter, that is, from the beginning of November to the month of March; ſuch as wild geeſe, ducks, teals, and widgeons, wild turkeys from 20 to 30 pounds weight, turtle-doves in abundance, curlews, ſand-birds, woodcocks, and partridges, but much ſmaller than in England; deer, a creature between a rabbit and a hare, which is very good eating: and when it is very cold weather in the northern parts of America, here are vaſt flights of wild pigeons, which are very eaſy to ſhoot. The chief game here in the ſummer ſeaſon is deer and ducks, which latter are called ſummer-ducks; and the poorer ſort of people kill great numbers of poſſoms and racoons: the poſſoms, if young and fat, eat very much like a ſucking pig; and the taſte of the racoons, which are com-

commonly fat, resembles that of lamb. The possoms have a false belly, or natural pouch, into which the young ones run if they are frighted; and then it immediately closes up like a bag or purse. Here are many tygers, but small, and bears, the flesh of whose cubs eats like that of young pigs. Here are wild cattle, and wolves, that often run away with the calves of the tame ones. In the woods are abundance of snakes, but none venemous, except the rattle snake; for the bite of which, however, the Indians have a secret and sure remedy, if applied in a little time after it. In the rivers are abundance of sharks and alligators. Here is plenty of fish, which, in summer especially, are very cheap, such as trouts, mullet, whitings, black-fish, rock-fish, sheeps-heads, drum-fish, bass, sturgeons, which are hard to catch, and sundry other very good kinds. With regard to shell-fish, here are oysters innumerable, but not so good as the English, crabs, clams, muscles, coucks, and prawns, so large that half a score of them will serve a moderate stomach.

Provisions here are all at a reasonable rate; as is the beer of Old England, the rum of our plantations, Lisbon and Madeira wines, (which last is the principal wine drank here) likewise brandy. Here are oranges and limes very cheap, and ere long will be much cheaper, great quantities having been lately planted. In the mean time they have oranges from Charles-town, in Carolina. Soap is made here very cheap, as in Georgia is plenty of pot-ashes.

But of all manufactures, none seems so practicable, and withal so beneficial here, as the raising of silk, the soil of Georgia being extremely pro-

proper for the culture of mulberry-trees, and the climate no leſs agreeable to ſilk-worms. There are great hopes too of raiſing wine here in time, though hitherto this has met with ſome difficulties. The external coat of the natural grape produced here is not ſtrong enough to contain the juice: ſo that, when ripe, it burſts. The froſts about the vernal equinox often kill the vines alſo, when ſhooting: and with regard to European grapes, many of them are deſtroyed by the inſects of this country. Yet experience has ſhewn, that by grafting the European on the wild vine, all theſe inconveniencies are in a good meaſure prevented: for then it ſhoots later, and thus eſcapes the froſt better, the ſkin of the grapes becomes thicker and ſtronger, and the inſects do the leſs harm. Some vines brought hither from Portugal and Madeira have thriven very well, even in the moſt barren parts of the province. In fine, nothing is wanting in this country but a ſufficient number of inhabitants, to render our ſettlement as fruitful and beneficial as it is pleaſant.

The principal town of Georgia is Savannah; which ſee.

GERMANTOWN, in the county of Philadelphia, and province of Penſylvania, in North America, is the moſt conſiderable place, next to the city of Philadelphia, in all this country; and is a corporation, conſiſting of High and Low Dutch: in it are between 2 and 300 houſes: peach-trees are planted all along before the doors; and the town is very pleaſant, and well cleared from trees.

GOLD RIVER, according to Wafer, lies to the ſouthward of the river Santa Maria, in the

Terra-

Terra Firma, or Isthmus of Darien, in America, affording gold-dust in great plenty; whence it has obtained its name.

GOSTEN, a village in the county of Orange, and province of New York, in North America. It is fruitful in cattle, cheese, pasture and butter. Near it are woods of white cedar, and black walnut-trees.

GOYOGOUIN, the third canton of Acadia, or New France, bordering on New York to the westward; and hence, with those of Onneyouth, Onantagne, and Tsonnouthonan, following each other in order, are called the Upper Cantons, unless they have been so denominated from meeting with them in the arrangement as one goes up the river of St. Laurence, and the lake Ontario, through which that river runs. This canton of Goyogouin surpasses all the others in the goodness of the soil, and mildness of the climate: and the inhabitants take a little after it, for they have still appeared the most tractable amongst all the Iroquois.

Over the whole extent of these five cantons, our European fruit-trees may be cultivated with success: several grow of themselves there without culture; and others are to be found there which are unknown to us. The forests in these parts abound with chesnut and filbert-trees of all sorts: the one bears a fruit which is quite mild, and the other very bitter: but passing them through ashes, a good oil is extracted from them by means of a mill, fire, and water, in the same manner as we do from linseed. In several places are cherries without kernels, very good to eat; also a tree, the blossom of which resembles our white lilly, and its fruit of the size and colour

colour of an apricot, with the taſte and ſmell of a citron.

Here is alſo a wild citron-tree, which is very ſmall: its fruit, of the magnitude of a china-orange, is very agreeable to the taſte, and very refreſhing: it iſſues from the middle of two leaves, which are of the form of a heart; but the root of this plant is poiſon. Here are apple-trees, the apples on which are of the figure of a gooſe-egg, and the ſeed a kind of bean: this fruit is ſweet-ſcented, and very delicious: it is a dwarf-tree which requires a rich and moiſt ſoil: the Iroquois have brought it from the country of the Eriez. They have alſo carried from the ſame place a plant which the French miſſionaries have termed plante univerſelle, i. e. the univerſal plant; the leaves of which, when bruiſed, cloſe all ſorts of wounds: theſe leaves are as large as one's hand, and of the figure of a flower de lys: the root of this plant has the ſmell of a laurel, or bay-leaf. Theſe ſavages have a great many more roots which are fit for dying, and ſome of them give a very lively colour. See IROQUOIS.

GOYOGOUINS, BAY OF, in New France, in North America, lies 10 leagues from the river of Onnontague. All the coaſt in this ſpace is intermixed with marſhes and high grounds a little ſandy, covered with very fine trees, eſpecially oak, which ſeem to have been planted by hand. In this bay, P. Charlevoix being obliged to take ſhelter from a violent ſquall of wind, he found it to be one of the fineſt places he ever ſaw. A peninſula well-wooded ſtretches out to the middle of it, and forms a kind of theatre. On the left hand, at entering it, one perceives in a corner a little

iſland,

iſland, which hides the mouth of a river, by which the Goyogouins go down into the lake.

GRACIAS A DIOS, a town belonging to the province of Honduras, or Comaiagua, and audience of Guatimala, in North America. It is ſituated at the mouth of a river upon a rocky mountain, which has ſome gold mines in its neighbourhood; and it was built the ſame year as Valladolid the capital, from which it lies about 27 leagues to the W. for the ſecurity of the miners. Mr. Gage ſays, that the neighbouring valley abounds in wheat, which, for the moſt part, is tranſported to Guatimala; and it breeds very good horſes and mules.

GRANADA, ISLAND OF, or GRENADA, one of the Caribbee iſlands, in the Atlantic ocean. It is ſituated in lat. 12. N. and long. 61. 40. W. about 20 leagues N. W. of Tobago, and 30 N. of New-Andaluſia, on the continent of America, to which this is the neareſt of all the French iſlands in the Antilles. Labat makes it 45, others but 30 leagues S. W. of Barbadoes, and 70 from Martinico. Its extent from N. to S. is in form of a creſcent, being between 9 and 10 leagues in length, and 5 where broadeſt. Father Tertre reckons it to be twice as large as St. Chriſtophers, and about 24 leagues in compaſs: but Labat ſays, that thoſe who have travelled it round make its circuit to be at moſt but 22 leagues.

Its original inhabitants were the Caribbeans, of which greater numbers were tempted to ſettle here than in other iſlands, on account of its fertility, wild game, and fiſhery. Monſ. de Poincy attempted to ſettle on this iſland in the year 1638; and ſo did many others after him: but

but they miſcarried, becauſe the Caribbeans were too powerful for them to cope with, and St. Chriſtophers was too far off to give them any aſſiſtance. The honour of an eſtabliſhment here, ſays Labat, was reſerved for monſ. Parquet, proprietor and governor of Martinico, who undertook it at his own expence. The firſt colony of French which he brought hither was 200 of the fitteſt men he could find in that iſland, furniſhed with preſents to ſooth the ſavavages, and arms to ſubdue them in caſe of oppoſition. He arrived here, after four days ſail from Martinico, in June 1650, was received with great joy by the captain of the ſavages; raiſed a pretty ſtrong fort in leſs than a week's time, and having given the captain ſome linen-cloth, looking-glaſſes, bills, hatchets, knives, and other things which the Caribbeans wanted, beſides two quarts of brandy, he yielded him the property of the whole iſland, in the name of all the Caribbeans, with a reſervation only of their habitations. The French had juſt got in a crop of tobacco here, ſo good, that one pound of it was worth three of what grew in the other iſlands, when the Caribbeans firſt repented of their bargain, and without any declaration of war, they began with way-laying and aſſaſſinating the French ſtragglers, of whom ſeveral had been knocked on the head in the woods, as they were hunting; or in the bays, as they were turning tortoiſes: whereupon the French that landed, being reinforced from Martinico with more men, attacked the ſavages; who defended themſelves with ſhowers of arrows; but were at laſt forced to retire to a mountain, from whence they rolled down trunks of trees upon the

the French: and being joined ſoon after by other ſavages from Dominica and St. Vincent, fell upon the French; but they were repulſed and defeated, many of them put to the ſword, and 40 who eſcaped this ſlaughter and overthrow, ran to a precipice, and caſt themſelves headlong into the ſea; for which reaſon it was afterwards called the Mountain of Leapers. The French burnt their cottages, deſtroyed their gardens, plucked up the Maudioca-roots, and carried off every thing they met with: yet ſoon after the ſavages rallied in ſeparate bodies, and killed all the French they found abroad in the woods, &c. Upon this the French commander ſent out 150 men, who ſurpriſed the remaining Caribbeans at day-break, and put all the men, women, and children they found to the ſword, burnt their cottages, deſtroyed all their proviſions, ſeized their boats, and thereby diſabled them from fetching any more ſuccours from the neighbouring iſles: yet, notwithſtanding all this, they frequently rebelled; and ſome of the French planters having alſo mutinied againſt the proprietor, Mr. Parquet, after he had almoſt exhauſted his eſtate by it, ſold it, in 1657, to count de Cerillac at Paris, with all the veſſels, arms, ſlaves, &c. for 90,000 livres, or 30,000 crowns. The count ſent ſuch a tyrannical brute to govern it, that the better ſort abandoned it; and the reſt who ſtayed behind, after ſeizing him, ſhot him dead. Nevertheleſs, in 1664, the count ſold this iſland to the French Weſt India company for 100,000 livres, though only 150 planters were left out of 500 that were upon the iſland when he took poſſeſſion of it: and, in 1674, the company was obliged to give it up into the hands

hands of the king. Such a change of maſters only gave a deal of trouble and diſturbance to the colony; ſo that it is but very lately that it has begun to thrive.

This iſland, according to fathers Tertre and Labat, enjoys a good air; and has a ſoil ſo fruitful, that all the trees upon it, both for fruit and timber, are better, ſtraighter, taller, and larger, than thoſe in the neighbouring iſlands, the cocoa-tree excepted, which does not grow ſo high here as in the other neighbouring iſlands. The moſt remarkable tree in this iſland is the Latin-tree, which has a tall trunk; and inſtead of boughs, bears leaves, like fans, in long ſtalks, which growing together in bundles, ſerve for the roofs of houſes. Here are ſalt-pits, and plenty of armadillos, whoſe fleſh is as good as mutton, and is the principal food of the inhabitants, beſides tortoiſes and lamantins. The coaſt has abundance of fine valleys, watered with good rivers, moſt of which iſſue from a lake at the top of a high mountain in the middle of the iſland: and one of them runs into the ſea on the S. W. where the ſhore is low, with good anchorage at the diſtance of 12 leagues; but an exceeding ſtrong current, which both ebbs and flows in a few hours. Round the iſland are ſeveral little bays and harbours which ſerve for mooring of ſhips, and landing of goods, and ſome of the harbours are fortified. The whole E. coaſt is very ſafe, cloſe by the ſhore, and the iſland is not ſubject to hurricanes. In ſhort, the ſoil is capable of producing all the commodities of the climate. Its particular articles, beſides cattle and wild fowl, are ſugar, ginger, indigo, and tobacco, with millet, and peaſe. Along the

ſhore

ſhore run mountains, and alſo about the harbour where the habitations are; but all the reſt is a very fine country; and here is good travelling either for horſes or carriages.

Its principal port, called Lewis, ſtands in the middle of a large bay on the W. ſide of the iſland, having a ſandy bottom, where 1000 barks, from 300 to 400 tons, may ride ſecure from ſtorms; and the harbour will contain 100 ſhips of 1000 tons, moored. Near the harbour is a large round baſon, parted from it by a ſand-bank, which, if cut, would hold a vaſt number of veſſels: by reaſon of this bank large ſhips are obliged to paſs within 80 paces of one of the two little mountains at the mouth of the harbour, and about half a mile aſunder. Upon one of theſe a French engineer erected a fort, with a half-moon in front, and other regular works all of good ſtone. The fort between the harbour and baſon is of wood 25 feet ſquare, and ſurrounded with a ſtrong palliſade of entire trees; at the two corners towards the ſea are two little wooden pavilions, in one of which lies the commandant. Mr. Paraquet, its firſt proprietor, reſided in a great wilderneſs, encompaſſing the mountain which lies near the harbour, at the foot of which are magazines of bricks and timber. The church, which is not far from the fort, is built of canes laid upon forks; and its inſide is as mean. In Paraquet's time, at every ſixth cottage was a little centry-box erected, two ſtories high, to which the inhabitants of every ſix cottages retired in the night, to prevent their being ſurpriſed by the ſavages.

The Dominicans have a ſettlement four leagues N. of the fort, which is upwards of a

mile in breadth: through the middle of it runs a large river, abounding with eels, mullets, and cray-fish; as the adjacent countries do with partridges, wood-pidgeons, ortolans, thrushes, parrots, &c. Father Labat adds, that the people here are subject to obstinate fevers, which turn sometimes to a dropsy. Granada the most S. of the Caribbees lies 159 miles S. W. of Barbadoes. Lat. 12. 21. N. Long. 61. 36. E.

GRANADA, NEW, a province of Terra Firma, in South America. It borders on Carthagena and St. Martha's on the N. Venezula on the E. Popayan on the S. and Darien on the W. Its length is reckoned to be 130 leagues, or 390 miles, and its breadth about 30 leagues, or 90 miles. It is surrounded with savage nations, who inhabit a very hot country; though New Granada, generally speaking, is cold, or at least temperate. In the year 1536, Ferdinand de Lugo, admiral of the Cararies, sent Gonzalo Ximenes de Quesada his lieutenant from St. Martha, to discover the country situated along the great river Madalena. Ximenes travelled by land along the left bank of that river, but met with great difficulties on account of the thick woods, and vast number of rivers, rapid streams, and marshes, he had to cross; but principally on account of the frequent inroads of the natives. He came to a place named Tora, which he called Puebla de los Brachas, on account of four rivers that joined there. At this place he passed the winter, having travelled, as he reckoned, 150 leagues from the sea-coast up the land. Next spring he went up along the banks of another river, till he came to the foot of high mountains, called Opon, 50 leagues broad, very steep and

defert: having paffed thefe, he came into an even plain country, well cultivated, where they gathered a great deal of falt from certain faltfprings. Thence he came with his people into the province of the powerful Cacique Bogota, whom they defeated. They afterwards plundered the villages of the Indians, where they found ftore of gold and emeralds. Thence they went into the country of the Panchos, feparated from that of Bagota by little hills, and entered into a valley which they called the Trumpet, 15 leagues diftant from a very high mountain, bare of trees, and from which the Indians got emeralds. Whilft they ftayed in that valley, they took an immenfe booty, and abundance of gold. Three days journey further, they fubdued two other Caciques; and being returned into the province of Bogota, they paffed through the country of the Panchos, and obliged the greateft part of the natives to make a peace after a long war. Ximenes judging that this country was now fufficiently difcovered and fubdued, called it the New Kingdom of Granada, becaufe he was native of the province bearing that name in Old Spain, and built the city of St. Fe, which is the capital.

The natives ufe maize, or the caffava-root, inftead of bread. They have plenty of falt, which they fell to great profit in the neighbouring countries, particularly thofe fituated in the mountains, and along the river Magdalena. The have ftore of game: the lakes and rivers abound with fifh: the natives are tall, and wear black, white, or variegated cloaks, which they tie round the waift with a fafh. They adorn their heads with ftrings of painted flowers very

ingeniouſly made of cotton. The country abounds with gold and ſilver mines: and as they have ſtore of horſes and mules, they ſend a great many of them into Peru. The country abounds with paſture, wheat, and other grain, and likewiſe with fruit.

GRANDA, a city in the provine of Nicaragua, and audience of Guatimala, in Old Mexico, or New Spain, in North America. It is ſituated on the S. ſide of the lake of Nicaragua, 60 miles S. E. of Leon; where the Spaniards have mills for making of ſugar, canes abounding in ſhat neighbourhood. It is defended by a caſtle, is more populous and better built than Leon; and the inhabitants carry on a trade both to the North and South-Seas. It is the moſt frequented of any town in all Guatimala: for the merchants of Guatimala diſpatch their goods from hence by the way of Carthagena, as thinking it ſafer than to ſend them by the gulph of Honduras, where they may often be intercepted by the Engliſh and Dutch. This town was taken in 1680, by French and Engliſh free-booters, who ſet fire to it. The intermediate country, lying between this city and Leon, is very fruitful and pleaſant. Near Granada, on the ſide of Nicaragua-lake, is a volcano, which ſome ſay may be ſeen from the North-Sea; or at leaſt a great way in the lake towards that ſea. It is a frightful hill, being cleft down almoſt from the top to the bottom, like a broken ſaw, and our ſailors call it the Devil's Mouth. Granada lies 51 miles W. from the city of Mexico. Lat. 11. 26. N. Long. 89. 12. W.

GRANADILLAS, a knot of dangerous iſlands and rocks near the Leeward iſlands, where the greateſt

greateſt channel is but three or four leagues broad.

GRANDE, a river in South America, and empire of Peru, near Cayanta, remarkable for its ſands, enriched with gold-duſt.

GRANVILLE, COUNTY OF, the moſt ſouthern ſubdiviſion of South Carolina, in North America, of which the other three are Colleton, Berkley, and Craven. It is ſituated along the river Savannah, and reckoned the moſt convenient and fruitful part of all Carolina. Here a colony of Scots ſettled under lord Cardroſs, but were obliged to quit it for fear of the Spaniards: ſo that the country continued uninhabited by any Europeans till the year 1732, when one monſ. Purry, a gentleman of Neuf-chattel in Switzerland, being encouraged by the government both in England and Carolina, undertook to conduct a company of Swiſs there: and accordingly 172 perſons were tranſported thither the aforeſaid year, who were ſoon followed by a great many more: ſo that in a very little time the colony conſiſted of above 300 perſons. They ſettled on the northern bank of the river Savannah, where they built a town which they called Purryſburgh, about 36 miles above the mouth of the river. The ſide which Mr. Purry pitched on is in lat. 32. 20. N. on a ſpot of ground, formerly called the great Yamaſee-bluff.

The colony ſtill continued to increaſe: and in the year 1734, monſ. Purry brought 270 perſons more from Switzerland, who arrived ſafe at Purryſburgh: ſo that now in this new ſettlement are upwards of 600 ſouls, who were all tranſported thither within the ſpace of two years. This was done in purſuance of a ſcheme pro-

poſed by monſ. Purry to the aſſembly of South Carolina; and his ſcheme was to people the ſouthern frontier of Carolina with brave and laborious people, ſuch as the Swiſs are known to be. The aſſembly of Carolina highly approved of the ſcheme, and in order to aſſiſt him in the execution of it, paſſed an act, dated the 20th of Auguſt 1731, by which they ſecured to him a reward of 400l. upon his bringing over to Carolina 100 effective men. In this act the aſſembly promiſed alſo to furniſh proviſions, tools, &c. for 300 perſons for one year, appropriating to that uſe part of the negro-duty, which the king had granted on condition that it ſhould be employed to ſettle poor proteſtants in Carolina. Purryſburgh is one of the 11 townſhips which were to be eſtabliſhed in South Carolina by the 43d article of his majeſty's royal inſtructions to the governor of that province, in which it is declared, That each of theſe 11 townſhips conſiſt of 20,000 acres of land to be laid out in ſquare plots of ground; that 50 acres (part of the above 20,000) ſhall be granted to every inhabitant at their firſt ſettling: and to the intent land near the townſhip may not be wanting for the conveniency of the inhabitants, as their ſubſtance ſhall increaſe, no perſon, except the inhabitants, ſhall be allowed to take up any land, within ſix miles of the ſaid townſhips reſpectively, to which the ſaid townſhip ſhall be contiguous. Beſides theſe inſtructions to the governor, the property of 48,000 acres of land were granted to monſ. Purry, upon condition that he ſhould import, or cauſe to be imported into South Carolina 600 Swiſs, within the ſpace of ſix years; which

which he performed in two years, as has been ſhewn above.

Not to enter into the diſcuſſion how far the promiſes made to monſ. Purry have been performed, and what difficulties this new colony both had, and ſtill has to ſtruggle with; let it only be obſerved that if this colony had been properly ſupported and encouraged, it would have proved very beneficial to Carolina, being, together with Georgia, on account of its ſituation, a ſort of bulwark againſt the inroads of the Indians; and perhaps of the Spaniards and French. It would alſo have proved very advantageous to Great Britain, becauſe numbers of Vaudois, who are proteſtants, inhabiting the valleys of Piedmont, would have gone and ſettled at Purryſburgh, as a few of them have already done: but by far the greateſt part of them were diſheartened, upon hearing what uſage their countrymen and the Swiſs met with there. For the Vaudois making very fine ſilk in their own country, would have very much improved that manufacture in Carolina, whereby vaſt ſums which are yearly ſent from England into Italy for ſilk, would have been ſaved to the nation by the ſupply of that commodity from this country.

Purryſburgh conſiſts now of upwards of 100 houſes tolerably well built.

In the county of Granville is the river May, which joining with the river Cambage, forms, together with the ſea, the iſland of Edelano. The country lying upon the banks of the May was formerly inhabited by an Indian nation, called the Veſtoes. In it alſo is a pleaſant lake, and delightful valley. Port Royal river lies about 15 miles to the northwards of the river

May: it has a bold entrance, and 17 feet in depth on the bar at low-water. The harbour is large, commodious, and ſafe for ſhipping; and it runs up into a fine fruitful country, preferable to any other parts of Carolina. It ſpends itſelf, by various branches, into other large rivers. This port lies not above 180 miles from St. Auguſtine; and might be a great curb upon the Spaniards there, who have not a conſiderable ſettlement in thoſe parts. The firſt Engliſh that came to Carolina thinking to ſettle here, were adviſed by the Indians to the contrary, becauſe this harbour being the fineſt in this country, would have tempted the Spaniards to diſturb them.

Beaufort is another town in this country. It is ſituated in the Island of Port Royal. See BEAUFORT.

GRATIAS A DIOS, the name Columbus gave to a cape of Honduras, in Mexico and North America, upon his meeting with a favourable wind. It is ſituated in lat. 14. 36. N. Long. 84. 12. W.

GUADALAJARA, one of the three diſtricts, governments, or courts of audience, into which Old Mexico, or New Spain, in North America, is divided: the other two are Mexico and Guatimala: this audience is alſo called the kingdom of New Gallicia. It lies the furtheſt to the N. of the three audiences of New Spain, though ſituated on the coaſt of the South-Sea. Its extent is between lat. 20 and 25 N. On the E. and S. it is bounded by Panucó, with ſeveral provinces of the audience of Mexico; on the N. by the kingdom of New Mexico; and on the W. it is waſhed by the South-Sea, and the

gulph

gulph of California, on the coaſt of which laſt it ſtretches above 200 leagues from S. E. to N.W. but within land it is very irregular, and the N. part, eſpecially, is very narrow: yet in ſome places it is reckoned 500 miles-broad.

Its climate differs much, according to its ſituation, being partly in the Temperate, and partly in the Torrid Zone: yet it is much more temperate than any other part of New Spain; and in the general it is reckoned healthy: ſo that it is common for people to live here to 100 years of age: but it is much infeſted with gnats, bugs, and other vermin. The ſoil is moſtly mountainous and woody: ſo that the coaſt looks like a deſert. It is ſaid, that the Spaniards have quite forſaken the coaſt on purpoſe, that if ſtrangers ſhould land, they may not find any temptation to ſtay, becauſe, beſides the ſilver mines in this province, ſome of gold have been lately diſcovered, which are of very great value: and they chuſe to tranſport the ore on mules to Mexico, rather than run the riſk of expoſing ſo valuable a product to be intercepted by foreigners, if they ventured to ſend it in ſmall veſſels by ſea. With regard to the reſt, the country is pretty fruitful; and it produces European and Indian grain ſo plentifully, that the latter yields a hundred-fold, and the other two hundred: but it is often deſtroyed by locuſts, and vaſt numbers of pyes, no larger than ſparrows, as their olives are by ants. In this country are all ſorts of fruits, herbs, and roots, better than thoſe in Europe; plenty of ſugar-canes, cochineal, and bees, ſaid to be without ſtings. The paſtures abound with all ſorts of cattle; and the woods with veniſon, pine, and oak-trees; yet they are infeſted

by wolves and ſcorpions. Here is medicinal pepper, which cures all ſores; green-ſtones alſo, ſaid to be a ſpecific againſt the gravel, fragrant flowers, valuable drugs, and rich mines of ſilver, copper, and lead. On the coaſt alſo is a good pearl-fiſhery. The natives are ſubtle, treacherous, and lazy: they are armed with bows and arrows; and often attack the Spaniards from the woods, except when the Spaniſh officers are in conjunction with their caciques in the government. The better ſort of Spaniards live here by trade, and are maſters of the ſilver-mines: the others following tillage and graſing.

The Spaniards place an Indian cacique, with two Spaniards, over each village, who regulate the price of proviſions. The Caciques are ſucceeded by their heirs: they are very ſenſible of affronts, and pride themſelves in their valour. Such of the natives as pretend to be civilized, are very indolent and lazy, and will not work but for great wages. Their apparel is a ſhirt, and ſquare cloak of cotton, faſtened with two buttons before: they have drawers and coverlids of the ſame, and lie upon flags and matts made of theſe: they wear green ſtones and ſhells about their necks, arms, and legs. Their chief recreation is dancing to the ſound of a hollow ſtick. Horſe-fleſh, and maize-cakes, are their principal and moſt delicious dainties; and chocolate and magney-wine, their favourite liquors.

This audience of Guadalajara is ſubdivided into the following ſeven provinces, as they lie from S. to N. namely, Guadalajara Proper, Xaliſco, Chiametlan, Zacateens, New Biſcay, Culiacan, and Cinaloa; all which ſee.

GUA-

GUADALAJARA PROPER, which is the principal province, and gives name to the whole audience, is bounded on the E. and S. by the province of Mechoacan; on the N. by that of Xalifco; and a corner of it wafhed by the Pacific ocean on the W. Notwithftanding its fituation under the Torrid Zone, it is healthy, temperate, and fruitful; producing not only good timber, but European and Indian wheat in great plenty; and all the fruits found in both countries: befides the vaft treafures of filver commonly taken out of its mines. It is not above 50 leagues either in length or breadth.

GUADALAJARA, a city of Mexico, and capital of the laft mentioned province, bearing its name, or of New Gallicia. It is the head of the audience, the feat of the royal courts of juftice, and a bifhop's fee of a confiderable revenue, which is a fuffragan to Mexico. It is a large, populous, and neat city, ftanding very pleafantly on the banks of the river Baranja, or Efquitlan, which iffues from the lake of Mechoacan, whence it goes with a rapid ftream towards the N. W. and at four leagues from this city it has a very high fall, after which it haftens into the Pacific ocean, between Xalifco and Chiametlan. It is no where fordable; fo that the Spaniards crofs it in boats. The lake of Chapala, which is faid to be 40 leagues in circuit, lies on the S. fide of this city. In this city are feveral churches, befides its ftately cathedral, and fome convents for both fexes. It is reckoned to lie 262 miles W. of the city of Mexico: and ftands in a plain which is not only watered by the above-mentioned river, but by feveral brooks and fprings that make it productive

of great ſtore both of corn and graſs. About five leagues from it is a mountain of a prodigious height; and ſo ſteep that no beaſts of burthen can climb it, and all the other mountains about it are craggy, and full of large pine and oak trees. It lies in lat. 20. 51. N. Long. 108. 20. E.

GUADALOUPE, or vulgarly GUARDALOUPE, one of the largeſt of all the Caribbees, in that diviſion of them, called the Leeward iſlands. It is ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, in America. It was ſo called by Columbus, who firſt diſcovered it, from its reſemblance of its mountains to thoſe of that name in Old Spain: the Caribbeans called it Karukera, or Carriceura. As ſoon as Columbus landed here, he and his Spaniards were attacked by a ſhower of arrows, ſhot by the women on the iſland, who were ſoon, however, diſperſed by his fire-arms: upon which his men plundered and burnt their houſes, or huts, where were found great quantities of honey, wax, iron, bows and arrows, cotton ſpun and unſpun, cotton-hammocks, and looms for weaving; together with pompions, or a ſort of pine-apples, maſtic, aloes, ſandal, ginger, frankincenſe, a ſort of cinnamon-trees, and various fruits and herbs different from ours. The birds he ſaw here were large parrots, partridges, turtles, and nightingales; beſides daws, herons, falcons, and kites. He found the houſes here better and fuller of proviſions than any he had ſeen in theſe iſlands. A voyage made to Guadaloupe by the Spaniards, in 1625, gives the following account. The naked Barbarians of this, as well as the other iſlands, uſed to be very impatient for the arrival of the Spaniſh fleets once

a year;

a year: they reckoned up their months by moons; and when they thought the time drawing near, prepared ſugar-canes, plantanes, tortoiſes, and other proviſions, in order to barter with them for iron, knives, and haberdaſhery-wares. The Indians had round canoes like troughs, painted with the Engliſh, Dutch, and French arms; this being then a common port for all nations that ſailed to America. The hair of the natives hung down to the middle of their backs, and their faces were flaſhed and pinked. They had thin plates dangling at their noſes, like hog-rings, and they fawned like children upon the Spaniards.

It is upwards of 60 miles long, and about the ſame breadth. According to Moll, this iſland is 15 miles N. W. of Marigalante; and it is reckoned to be 85 miles N. of Martinico. Till very lately, namely 1759, it was ſubject to the French; but commodore Moore and general Barrington have entirely reduced it to the obedience of Great Britain, whoſe troops are now in poſſeſſion of it, and alſo of Marigalante. Guadaloupe is the largeſt and one of the fineſt iſlands which belonged to the French in thoſe parts; being, according to father Tertre, near 100 leagues in circuit. He has given a map of it, which repreſents it as divided into two parts by a channel about a league and a half over, called the Salt-river, navigable only by canoes; which runs N. and S. and communicates with the ſea on both ſides, by a large bay at each end, of which that on the N. is called Grand cul de Sac; and that on the S. Petit cul de Sac. The E. part of the iſland is called Grande Terre, and is about 19 leagues from Antigua point on the

the N. W. to the point of Guadaloupe on the S. E. and about nine leagues and a half in the middle, where broadeſt. The French geographer, M. Robbe, makes this part about 50 leagues in circuit. The W. part, which is properly Guardaloupe, according to Laet, is ſubdivided by a ridge of mountains, into Capes-terre on the W. and Baſſe-terre on the E. This is 13 leagues and a half from N. to S. and 7 and a half where broadeſt: and, according to M. Robbe, 45 leagues in circuit. Both parts would be joined by an iſthmus a league and a half in breadth, were it not cut through by the ſaid canal. Labat ſays, that the French were obliged to abandon Grande-terre in 1696, by the reaſon of the frequent incurſions and depredations committed there by the Engliſh from Antigua and Montſerrat. Beſides, this part is deſtitute of freſh water, which is ſo plentiful in the other, (properly called Guadaloupe, as having been firſt diſcovered and inhabited) that it has enough to ſupply the neighbouring iſlands. He makes the latter 35 leagues in compaſs, and both iſlands together about 90. The Salt-river, he ſays, is about 50 toiſes, or 300 feet over at its mouth, towards the Great cul de Sac, from whence it grows narrower; ſo that in ſome places it is not above 90 feet over. Its depth is likewiſe as unequal as its breadth: for in ſome places it will carry a ſhip of 500 tons; and in others hardly bear a veſſel of 50. It is a ſmooth, clear ſtream, above two leagues from the one Cul de Sac to the other, and finely ſhaded, for the moſt part, with mangroves.

The air here is very clear and healthy; and not ſo hot as in Martinico. Here is alſo plenty of

of water, and as good as the ſoil is rich; which laſt is not inferior to that of Martinico. It is equally cultivated and fortified with equal ſtrength. Its produce is the ſame with that of Martinico, and its export of ſugar is as great, beſides indigo, cotton, and thoſe other commodities produced in all the iſlands of that part of America called the Weſt Indies.

The French began to ſend colonies to Guadaloupe about the year 1632. But it made no great figure till the preſent century, ſince the beginning of which it has vaſtly increaſed. It is ſaid to contain 10,000 European inhabitants, and 30,000 negroes. And the French have fortified it with ſeveral regular forts. Here Labat found the copau-tree, ſo famous for its ſanative balſam, or oil; and which he had ſought for in vain throughout all the French iſlands. It is a handſome tree, about 25 feet high, with a leaf like that of an orange tree, only longer and more pointed, and of an aromatic ſmell; as is alſo its bark. Its wood is white and very ſoft; and it is of a quick growth. (See Labat's directions with regard to the time and method of cutting the bark to let out the balm.) It does not, he ſays, grow hard or dry, like the balſam of Peru; and he commends it as a ſpecific for almoſt every malady, both internal and external. He alſo found here that called the milk-ſhrub, with a leaf reſembling that of a laurel, only larger, thicker, and ſofter; and its fibres, when preſſed, yield a liquor of the colour and ſubſtance of milk. It has bloſſoms of five or ſix flowers each, much reſembling thoſe of jeſſamine, and containing in the middle a little oval bud in which is two ſmall grains or kernels, that

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are the ſeed of the tree. It alſo thrives very well from ſlips. The bark is a pale green without, and white within, and has a pith like that of an alder. The ſtem of the leaves is about an inch long, with a knot where it touches the bark. Labat commends its juice for almoſt as many virtues as the copau-tree. Here is alſo the monbane-tree, which bears yellow plums, wherewith they fatten their hogs; and the corbary, a tree which bears fruit in a ſhell, containing a downy pulp of a ſaffron colour: and it yields a gum, which being hardened in the ſun, becomes very clear: ſo that the native Caribbeans uſe it for bracelets and other ornaments. Here are pear-trees, like thoſe of Europe with regard to the leaf, but they do not bear fruit. The chief product of the ſoil, beſides what has been above-mentioned, is tobacco, caſſia, bannanas, pine-apples, ſtore of rice, maize, mandioca, and potatoes. Some of the mountains in the ridge aforeſaid are overgrown with trees; and at the foot of others are large plains, watered by freſh and ſweet ſtreams. Among theſe is a ſort of volcano continually ſmoking, which communicates a ſulphurous taſte to the rivers about it: and here are ſeveral boiling hot ſprings; particularly one to the W. ſide near the iſland of Goyaves, which are ſaid to be good for the dropſy, and all diſtempers proceeding from colds. The two gulphs called the Culs de Sac, abound with tortoiſes, ſharks, pilots, and the other fiſh common to theſe ſeas: and here is abundance of thoſe called land-crabs, with ſwarms of muſkettos and gnats.

The forts of this iſland, as deſcribed by fathers Tertre and Labat, are, 1. Fort Lewis in the

the Grande Terre, on the E. ſide of the bay called Petit Cul de Sac. It is too high to defend the veſſels that anchor at the bottom of it: and therefore the French have erected a redoubt below it, with a battery of ſix guns which play into the road. From this fort may be ſeen not only the greateſt part of the Cabes-terre and Grand Cul de Sac, and many ſmall iſlands in the Petit Cul, with the iſlands of Xaints; but alſo the mountains of Dominica in clear weather. This fort lies in the pariſh of Goſier on the Grande Terre. Certain abyſſes, as Labat calls them, are in the Grande Terre, which are great indentures made in the land by the ſea, affording ſhelter for veſſels, in very deep water, from the hurricanes, or an enemy; and where they are manned to prevent [illegible] on each ſide.

2. The Great Cul de Sac [illegible] a [illegible] five or ſix leagues in length, from the point of Groſs Morne in the Baſſe Terre, to that of Antigua in the Grande Terre. It is alſo nearly three leagues in the broadeſt part; and at leaſt one in the narroweſt; with ſafe riding for ſhips of all rates.

3. The Petit Cul de Sac is a populous, well cultivated, and trading pariſh, to the N. of that of Goyaves: and both are in the Cabes-terre, on the E. ſide of Guadaloupe Proper. Here are no leſs than eight rivers, beſides near as many brooks that run into the ſea in the ſpace of four leagues, betwixt the river of Coin, which is to the W. of the Salt-river, and the Brick-kiln river.

Ginger comes up extremely well in the E. part of Proper Guadaloupe, betwixt the Great Cul de Sac, and the river of Cabes-terre. And thongh

though the climate of these islands is very hot, the people eat a vast quantity of it, even when green. The Cabes-terre river, called the Great river, is in some places 180 feet wide. Its water is very clear; but almost impassable by reason of numerous rocks.

The next river to the S. is the Grand Carbet, and a little further is the Grand Bananiers, that terminates the quarter called Cabes-terre, which is by much the finest part of the island. For from this river to the Gros Morne, where begins the Grand Cul, it is a very even country, near 20 leagues in extent by the sea-side; which is only a league in some places, and at most but four from the mountains.

The quarter of the Trois Rivieres on the S. E. side is four miles broad, with a good soil for sugar-canes, and several considerable settlements. The French have here at the S. end, what they call the Old Fort for the security of the coast, which is very even, has good anchorage, and smooth water; where, should an enemy make a descent, and possess themselves of this part, they might cut off the communication betwixt the Cabes-terre and Basse-terre, and so make themselves masters of the whole. The French have therefore planted two guns at the point to give an alarm. And in the sulphur-mountains is a redoubt called Dos d'Asne, to which upon a descent, the French send their best effects, wives, children, &c. But the country here is so full of woods and precipices, that a handful of men might keep off an army.

The river of the Galleons on the S. W. side, where the French have another fort, is a considerable river; and when fordable, the only passage

ſage from the Cabes-terre to the Baſſe-terre. Here is excellent anchorage, but the water taſtes of ſulphur and vitriol, cauſing fluxes.

The chief fort of the whole iſland is that at the town of Baſſe-terre, two leagues N. from the point of the old fort; which, at the firſt peopling, conſiſted of two conſiderable towns; one cloſe by the river St. Louis, or the Riviere des Peres, i. e. the Jacobine Friars river: the other on both ſides of the Baliff river; where was at firſt a chapel, now turned to a parochial church. But the former having been carried away twice by the inundation of the river in a hurricane, the inhabitants removed towards the fort, where they built the latter town, which is now the principal town of the iſland, having ſeveral churches, monaſteries, &c. and a caſtle with four bulwarks, beſides a fort on a neighbouring mountain: yet it has been ruined more than once. In 1691 it was burned by the Engliſh, together with ſome other forts: and when entirely rebuilt, it was carried away by an inundation of the river Bailiff. It was begun to be rebuilt when the Engliſh burnt it again in 1703, together with Magdalen and other forts. This fort ſtands upon higher ground than the town: its walls are waſhed on the S. E. by the river Galleons; on the S. W. it faces the the ſea, being only 100 paces from it; and on the N. W. ſide it looks towards the town and the mountains. The moſt conſiderable part of the town is between the fort and the river of Herbs; and this is properly the town of Baſſe-terre; and that which extends from the river to the brook of Billan, is called the town of St. Francis, from a church and convent of Capuchins in it. La-

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bat reckoned the houſes in both towns, in the year 1696, to be about 260, but generally of timber.

Betwixt the river Bailiff on the W. and the great river of Goyaves, or St. Charles, on the E. are the ruins of another fortification deſtroyed by the Engliſh in 1691. All the ground between the Bailiff river, and that of Pleſſis, is called rhe Marſh of St. Robert. The pariſh of Bailiff is ſeparated by the Pleſſis river from the pariſh of the inhabitants, whither ſuch retired as had, at the firſt ſettlement, ſerved the term of three years, which they had contracted for with the company. Here is a river of the ſame name; and a little to the W. of it, another ſmall one called Beangendre, the boundary of the inhabitants quarter. About half a league from thence is Anse a la Barque, a creek where the Engliſh made their deſcent in 1691, the moſt likely place for every man of them to be cut to pieces, had the general officers behaved as they ought, on account, ſays Labat, of the many defiles, difficult paſſes, mountains and rivers betwixt the landing-place and the fort of Baſſeterre.

Labat met with no bird of paſſage in any of the iſlands, but in this and Dominica, whither they repair at a certain time of the year to couple, lay their eggs, and hatch their young. He ſuppoſes it to be the devil-bird, which is ſeen in Virginia and the neighbouring countries from May to October. It is of the ſize of a young pullet, its plumage black as jet, very ſhort legs, with feet like thoſe of ducks, but armed with ſtrong claws, its back an inch and a half long, but crooked, ſharp pointed, and extremely hard.

hard. It ſees beſt at night, when it catches fiſh out of the ſea, from which they return in the morning to the Devil's mountain, not far from Bailiff river, where they lodge by pairs in holes like rabbits. And at night when they fly out to ſea, they make ſuch a chatter, as if they called or anſwered one another. They ſtay here from the beginning of October to the end of November; and are not ſeen till January; and then only ſingle ones in each hole till March, when they have two young ones, which before they are fledged are covered with a down like goſlings, and called cottons. About the end of May they are ready to fly, and then are not ſeen nor heard till September. Their fleſh is black, and has a fiſhy taſte; but otherwiſe very good and nouriſhing. The young ones are the tendereſt, but their fat is like oil. They are roaſted or boiled, and ſerved up with a ragout of orange-peel and the leaves of the Indian wood. Theſe birds are the main ſuſtenance of the negroes and poor people, who have nothing elſe to live on during the ſeaſon; and our author, after calling them manna from heaven, thought it a great providence that theſe birds harboured in places ſo difficult to climb, as he found this mountain to be; otherwiſe the French would have deſtroyed the ſpecies long ago.

Father Labat accompanied four negroes in this kind of fowling, which took them up ſix hours before they got to the top of the mountain: when thruſting ſwitches ſeven or eight feet long, with a crook at the end, into each hole where the devil is, which dogs trained up to the chace diſcover by barking at the entrance to it; the birds either faſten on the ſwitch with their beaks,

beaks, and rather than quit their hold, ſuffer themſelves to be dragged out: or if they do not bite the ſwitch, it is turned round ſo often in the hole, till one of its wings being entangled in the crook, it is drawn out by force: ſo that by noon they had taken 198 of theſe birds.

The top of the mountain of Sulphur, to which Labat paſſed over the river St. Louis, he found bare, without any thing but fern, and ſome ſorry ſhrubs full of moſs. From hence he plainly ſaw not only Dominica, the Xaintes iſlands, and Marigallante; but he had a clear view of Martinico one way, as well as Monſerrat, Nevis, and the neighbouring iſlands the other. He travelled round the hill among burnt ſtones and whitiſh aſhes, which in ſome places were above his ancles, and ſmelt ſtrong of ſulphur. Theſe increaſed the higher he aſcended; and at the top, which is a vaſt rugged platform, covered with all ſizes of burnt ſtones, ſmoke iſſued out from ſundry clefts and chinks. On the E. ſide of the mountain he ſaw two mouths of this ſulphur pit, one of which was oval, and he judged to be about 100 feet in its greateſt diameter; but remembring the fate of Pliny, he durſt not venture near to fathom its depth, it, every now and then, emitting thick clouds of ſmoke, with ſparks of fire. The negroes who ſell brimſtone fetch it from this mountain. About 200 paces below the leaſt and loweſt mouth are three little pools of very hot water, four or five paces aſunder, the biggeſt of which may be about ſix feet in diameter. Its water is very dark-coloured, and ſmells like that in a ſmith's forge. The ſecond is whitiſh, and has the taſte of alum. The third is blue, and of a

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vitriolic taſte. Here are alſo ſeveral ſmall ſprings, which uniting, form divers rivers or torrents: one of them called the White river from the aſhes and ſulphur covering it, falls into that of St. Louis. The middle and bottom of this burning mountain are as different from the top, as if in quite another country, being covered with a delightful verdure of tall trees and herbage, watered with abundance of rivulets, and very carefully cultivated.

The bees here are blacker and rounder than ours in Europe, but not half ſo big; nor do they ſeem to have any ſting; or if they have, it is too weak to pierce the ſkin. They have no hives but in hollow-trees; their wax is black, or of a deep purple colour: and Labat ſays, that all the art of his countrymen could not turn it to white or yellow; beſides it is too ſoft for candles; nor is it uſed here for any thing but ſering over the corks of bottles, after it is thoroughly refined. The bees here lay their honey in little bladders of wax of the form and ſize of a pidgeons-egg, though more pointed, and almoſt like the bladder of a carp. Theſe, though they may be eaſily parted, are ſo artfully ranged, that there ſeems to be no void between them. Theſe bladders are moſtly full of honey; but in ſome of them is a yellow matter like the ovules of a carp, and glutinous, without any ſmell but that of honey. The negroes ſay theſe are the bees excrements; but they would ſeem rather to be the impregnated ovules in a ſtate towards the formation of inſects. Their honey is always liquid, of the conſiſtence of olive-oil.

Here is another ſort of flies, which are very extraordinary both in ſize and form. Theſe Mr.

Rochefort has mistaken for the phalanges, and captain Dampier for spiders. There are indeed spiders in these islands, some perhaps as large as a man's fist, but without horns, nor are they poisonous. The French are very cautious of destroying them, because they eat a stinking insect called ravets, of the size and almost the shape of May-bugs, but a little flatter and more tender, which gnaw paper, pictures, and other furniture, and foul wherever they pitch with their ordure. As they fly every where, and more by night than day, they either entangle themselves in these spiders-webs; or else if they pitch and happen to sleep, the spider, which is on the watch, seizes them napping, and sucks them till their skin is as dry as parchment. So much for the natural history of this island.

We shall now proceed to give some account of the French settlement on Guadaloupe. M. de Olive, or, according to Labat, M. de Loline, their lieutenant-general at St. Christophers, and M. du Plessis, having made a contract with some merchants of Dieppe, arrived here in 1635, with a commission from the general company of the American islands at Paris, to plant colonies, and to be governors either of this island, Dominica, or Martinico. They brought with them 400 men, who were obliged to serve them three years for their passage; besides four Dominican friars, for whom cardinal Richelieu had obtained great privileges from pope Urban VIII. Eighteen of this order had, it seems, been murdered by the natives here in 1603 and 1604. The two governors landed first at Martinico in May, but going a-shore where they discovered a good number of serpents, and saw nothing else before them,

them but mountains and precipices, they came to Guadaloupe, of which they took poſſeſſion, by erecting a croſs with the uſual ceremonies, as they had done at Martinico. But Labat ſays they landed at the very worſt part of all Guadaloupe. When they had landed, each of the governors took his ſhare of the men, proviſions, and ammunition; but not without ſome quarrel. And they had ſeveral bickerings in the voyage, which brought great calamities afterwards upon the colony. M. de Olive built a little fort called St. Peter's, as he took poſſeſſion on the eve of that ſaint's feſtival. The ſavages coming down were well received, and for a few preſents helped the colony in building their cottages; furniſhed them with the Mandioca plant, of which they made caſſavi, the bread of the country; as alſo with ſome ſeed of tobacco, cotton, and divers kinds of peaſe; taught them to make fiſhing-canoes, and to turn the tortoiſes and lamantines. In ſhort, had it not been for the friendſhip of the ſavages, the colony would have periſhed through famine; for they brought only two months proviſions from France; part of which being ſpoiled in the voyage, they were reduced to five ounces of bread each man; ſo that having no meal or ſalt meat left, they were forced to eat freſh tortoiſe, which threw many of them into bloody fluxes, of which they died. Some ſtayed on the iſland, where they were civilly entertained by the ſavages: and others fled to St. Chriſtopher's. At laſt the famine grew ſo terrible that they were forced to eat dogs, cats, rats, ſurgeons ointment, leather, and even one another's excrements: and at night they ranſacked the graves to feed on the dead.

In ſhort they were hardly reſtrained from hanging or drowning themſelves. In September arrived a ſhip with 140 men from the merchants of Dieppe, but the captain could not ſpare them above a months proviſion: ſo that theſe new-comers added to the miſery of the reſt. This famine laſted five years, and was ſucceeded by a great mortality, which was increaſed by the unwholeſome ſoil, but more eſpecially by the cruelty of the commanders, who treated the poor half-ſtarved men worſe than ſlaves, and even ſome of them died under it. So many hands being cut off by the famine and mortality, before the great trees in the foreſts were felled, or proper places made for plantations, the two governors were diſcouraged to the laſt degree, and du Pleſſis broke his heart.

M. de Olive being thereby left abſolute maſter of this wretched colony, began an unjuſt war againſt the ſavages, in order to obtain ſubſiſtence, and cauſed great numbers of them to be maſſacred. Whereupon they called the Caribbeans of the neighbouring iſlands to their aſſiſtance, and returned the maſſacre upon the French; ſo that by this means, and the famine from January 1636 to 1639, the colony was reduced almoſt to nothing. Mean while ſeveral colonies ſent thither miſcarried, and of a detachment of the beſt men M. de Olive had left which he ſent to St. Chriſtopher's to fetch bread, they were never more heard of. M. de Olive, to prevent the total ruin of the colony, ſent the ſuperior of the Dominicans to repreſent their calamities to the company in France, and ſolicit ſpeedy ſuccours; when by Richelieu's intereſt he was continued ſole governor. But while his commiſſion from

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the company was reading here, the Dominicans houſe and church was deſtroyed by fire, and every thing in them burnt.

The remainder of M. de Olive's people, having ſerved their time out, demanded leave to return; and threatened, if refuſed, to take it of their own accord. He wrote ſeveral times to the company at Paris for ſuccours; but having no favourable anſwer, he fell into a phrenſy, became blind, and going to St. Chriſtopher's for aſſiſtance, M. Poincy the governor-general of the French iſlands, put him under an arreſt. However, when the company's deputy here demanded men and ammunition of M. de Poincy to defend the colony againſt the ſavages, he very readily ſent both. He promiſed to ſuch as would go to Guadaloupe a free paſſage, and proviſions till the planters could furniſh them. And even forbidding the French at St. Chriſtopher's to plant any more tobacco in the mountains: 132 of them embarked for Guadaloupe January 14, 1640; but in a ſtorm were driven back, and loſt moſt of what they brought out. Nevertheleſs the ſhip being refitted, they arrived the laſt day of the month; and were ſoon after followed by as many more, Poincy having for the purpoſe releaſed all inſolvent debtors. He ſent over meſſ. Vernad and Sabouilly with the convoys: but the former inhabitants mutinied againſt the new-comers, of whom three fourths died of diſtempers: and this being alſo attended with want of proviſions, the iſland was in a miſerable ſtate. The ſavages indeed had been twice defeated by M. Sabouilly, and almoſt driven out of the iſland. But in the mean time a number of fugitive ſlaves, who had retired to the woods and mountains, plundered

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and murdered the other inhabitants, which made M. Poincy ſend 500 men againſt theſe, who ſoon reduced them.

In 1640, M. Aubert was, by the French Weſt India company, appointed governor of this colony, who made a peace with the ſavages, who had now the liberty of treating with the French for wedges, hooks, knives, and other neceſſaries; and the French received in exchange ſwine, lizards, tortoiſes, and other fiſh, &c. So that now the plantations being cultivated without diſturbance, juſtice revived in the colony with peace and plenty: the report of which brought many to ſettle here. This excellent governor was ſupplanted by M. Howel, a member of the company, who ſent him hither in 1642, to enquire into the ſtate of the iſland, and next year ſent him over again as governor. He ſtayed here about 10 years, and then ſailed for France, leaving the iſland, which was very weak, and full of diſcontent, to be governed till his return by his brother and nephew; who put the iſland, however, into ſuch a good ſtate of defence, that major-general Penn, arriving then here with an Engliſh ſquadron, did not think fit to attack it. In 15 months no leſs than three hurricanes happened here, the laſt of which was ſo terrible, that were it not for the relief from the other iſlands, the colony muſt have been ruined, by the deſtruction it cauſed, and a great famine enſuing it.

Howel confiding more in the ſlaves than in the other inhabitants, whom the former far exceeded in numbers, for that reaſon having taught them the uſe of arms, they formed a dangerous inſurrection in 1656, which only miſcarried for want

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of a hearty union between the Angola and Cape Verd negroes. They had laid a plot to murder all their maſters; but to preſerve the women, and ſet up two kings, the one at Baſſe-terre, the other at Capes-terre, at which laſt place they were to rendezvous; but the Cape Verd negroes, having a pique againſt thoſe of Angola, did not keep their promiſe. The former however met, and having waited a whole day in vain for the latter, ſet upon the plantation at Capes-terre, ſeized the arms, and after deſtroying all that was of value, retired to the woods; from whence they made incurſions for 15 days, plundering and killing all the French they met: but they were at laſt defeated, and their two pretended kings taken and quartered alive. Many of the reſt were hanged, and the younger ſort whipped, and their ears cropt. They afterwards formed another plot, in which they were countenanced by the ſavages about Capes-terre, who at laſt agreed to a peace, and to entertain no more of the French ſlaves.

Howel, by his exactions, provoked the inhabitants themſelves to a freſh revolt, which he was forced to pacify by fair promiſes; but did not keep them. Which ſo incenſed the people, that they joined with his brother and nephew, who came from France to demand their eſtates he unjuſtly detained from them; and he was forced to comply. But this agreement did not laſt long: for Howel and his adherents inſulted them ſo, that M. Poincy was obliged to interpoſe, and obtained a reconciliation. Nevertheleſs, Howel breaking the peace again, occaſioned a great deal of bloodſhed; which obliged the French king to ſend M. Tracy from France to

reſtore peace in the country; and at laſt, in 1660, a general peace was concluded in the Antilles iſlands, between the French, Engliſh, and ſavages. At M. Tracy's arrival, he garriſoned the forts with the king's troops; but he oppreſſed the proteſtants. While he was governor, abundance of ſlaves deſerted to the woods, and 400 of them, headed by a ſturdy negro, plundered the iſland; but the governor purſued and reduced them.

Mean time the French Weſt India company, being much in debt, made a ſale of this and the iſlands of Deſirada, Marigalante, Xaintes, &c. in 1640, to M. de Boiſret. And, in 1664, the king himſelf made a purchaſe of them, by reimburſing the proprietors the money they had laid out in their purchaſe and improvements, and appointed M. du Lion his firſt governor of Guadaloupe. In 1677, an Engliſh ſquadron took five Dutch veſſels in a harbour of this iſland, and plundered ſome of the plantations on Grande-terre. In February 1691, general Codrington, in a ſquadron under commodore Wright, landed ſome troops on the W. ſide of Guadaloupe, and, after after a warm diſpute with a body of French, burnt the town of Baſſe-terre, and had begun to batter two ſtrong forts in the neighbourhood: but on the approach of M. du Caſſe's ſquadron from Martinico, the Engliſh were reimbarked in all haſte, and ſent to Barbadoes, &c.

On the 12th of March, 1703, Guadaloupe was attacked by a ſquadron under commodore Walker, and ſome land-forces from our plantations, under colonel Codrington. They firſt landed at a place called Les Petits Habitans, where they deſtroyed ſome ſcattered ſettlements

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on the N. W. part of the iſland, together with the church of Goyaves; and afterwards landed in a bay N. of the aforeſaid town, called Bailiff, where they beat the French out of their breaſt-works and entrenchments with very little loſs, and took the town, as alſo that of St. Francis, with the church of the Jacobines, which the French had fortified and defended with 10 pieces of cannon. Colonel Codrington afterwards beat them out of the Jacobine plantations, and ſtrong breaſt-work along the river of the ſame name: then he drove them out of the N. part of the town of Baſſe-terre; where ſtaying about a week, he ſent out two parties to burn their houſes, deſtroy their ſugar-works, plantations, and proviſions. For the French had retired to the fort and caſtle of Baſſe-terre, to which the Engliſh laid cloſe ſiege. The French defending them till the 3d of April, blew them up, and retired to the mountains. But through ſickneſs, the vigorous defence made by the French, and eſpecially ſome differences betwixt the commanders, the Engliſh were obliged to re-embark, when very near making a conqueſt of the whole iſland, after they had burnt the town, razed the fortifications, taken the beſt of their guns, and burſt the reſt.

Labat owns, that in this expedition the Engliſh burnt four pariſh churches, namely, thoſe of the iſle of Goyaves, in the chapel of the old fort, that of the friars de la charite, and two others, with 29 ſugar-works, about as many ſmall ſettlements, the town of the inhabitants, the Bailiff, and thoſe of St. France, and Baſſe-terre; the convents of the Capuchins, Carmelites, and two others, beſides that of the Jeſuits; and left

only the church of the Capuchins, and that of the Jesuits. He taxes Mr. Gabaret the governor of Martinico, who arrived with a supply of 800 men, as guilty of gross misconduct; and he says, that the misunderstanding betwixt the governor of the island, and the lieutenant-general Malmaison, with the inexperience of the latter, had more than once endangered the total ruin of the colony, and the loss of the whole island; had it not been for the like misunderstanding betwixt the commodore of the English squadron, and the general of their forces. But the case was much otherwise in the reduction of Guadaloupe, in May 1759; when by the unanimity between commodore Moore and general Barrington, together with the great valour of the British troops, this island came gradually, and in a very short time, into our hands; as did that of Marigalante soon after. In possession of both which our troops are at present, as has been mentioned above.

In the government of Guadaloupe are included not only the Grande Terre, but Xaintes, or All Saints islands, and that of Desirada. All which see.

GUAMALIES, a province in the jurisdiction of the archbishop of Lima, in South America, and empire of Peru, begins 80 leagues N. E. from Lima, and extends along the center of the Cordillera. The Indian inhabitants apply themselves to weaving, and make a great variety of bayes, serges, and other stuffs, with which they carry on a considerable trade with the other provinces.

GUAMAN VILLAS, a jurisdiction in South America, and empire of Peru, subject to the arch-

archbiſhoprick of Lima, about ſeven leagues from Guamanga. It is a very fertile country, abounding with corn, fruits, paſtures, cattle in great quantities, and all manner of eſculent vegetables. The Indians of this place apply themſelves to the woollen manufacture, making bayes, corded ſtuffs, &c. which they ſend to Cuſco, and other provinces. Here is ſtill remaining an old Indian fort. See VILLAS GUAMAN.

GUAMANCA, or GUAMANGA, a city, the capital of a dioceſe of the ſame name, under the juriſdiction of the archbiſhop of Lima, in South America, and empire of Peru. It was founded by Don Franciſco Pizarro, in 1539. The Spaniards added the name of San Juan del la Victoria, in memory of the precipitate retreat of Manco the Ynca from Pizarro, who offered him battle. It is very populous, and has ſeveral noble families in it; near it is a large Indian ſuburb, which adds greatly to its extent. It has a cathedral very ſplendid, a ſeminary, and an univerſity, with profeſſors of philoſophy, divinity, and law, and equal privileges with thoſe of Lima, being both royal foundations. Here are five convents, a college of Jeſuits, two nunneries, a ſiſterhood, and an hoſpital. It principally abounds in variety of grain, fruit, and cattle; one part of its commerce conſiſts in bend-leather for ſoles of ſhoes. Conſerves and ſweet-meats are alſo made here in great plenty. It is ſituated 208 miles E. of Lima, in lat. 12. 20. S. long. 72. 36. W.

GUAN ABACOA. See HAVANNAH.

GUANA PATINA, a volcano near Arequipa, in the valley of Quilea, in South America, and

empire of Peru; whoſe eruption, aſſiſted by an earthquake, laid Arequipa in ruins in 1600.

GUANCHA BELICA, 30 leagues N. of the city of Guamanga, a juriſdiction ſubject to the archbiſhop of Lima, in South America, and empire of Peru; has very rich quick-ſilver mines, but very barren in other reſpects. This rich mine, the ſource of their wealth, ſupplies all the ſilver mines in Peru.

GUANCHACO, a port or harbour in South America, and empire of Peru, about two leagues from Truxillo N. and the channel of its maritime commerce, ſituate in 8°. 6. S. lat. in the South Seas.

GUANIHANI, or St. Salvador, now Catt iſland, one of the Bahamas; ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, near the coaſt of North America. This was the firſt land which Columbus diſcovered in the year 1492, whence he called it St. Salvador, his crew having given themſelves over for loſt in an immenſe ocean, till they ſaw this iſland. It lies in lat. 24. 10. N. Long. 76. 12. W.

GUANTA, a juriſdiction N. N. W. of Guamanga, under the archbiſhop of Lima, about four leagues from the former, lying in South America, in the empire of Peru. It was very rich in ſilver mines, which are near exhauſted.

GUANUCO, a city, and the capital of its juriſdiction, in the archbiſhopric of Lima, in South America, and empire of Peru, which begins 40 leagues from Lima. This city was formerly one of the principal in theſe kingdoms, and the ſettlement of ſome of the firſt conquerors; but at preſent in a mean and ruinous condition. Several kinds of jellies and ſweet-meats are made here,

here, and ſold to other provinces. It lies 192 miles N. E. of Lima, in lat. 10. 21. S. Long. 75. 20. W.

GUARA, a town in its own juriſdiction on the road from Truxillo to Lima, containing about 200 houſes. It has a pariſh church, and a convent of Franciſcans, ſurrounded by fine plantations, and delightful improvements. At the S. end of Guara ſtands a large tower with a gate, and over it a kind of redoubt. This tower is erected before a ſtone bridge, under which runs Guara river. It lies in 11°. 31″. 36′. S. Not far from this town are ſtill to be ſeen a great many ruinous remains of the edifices of the Yncas; ſuch as the walls of palaces, large dykes, by the ſides of ſpacious highways, fortreſſes, and caſtles, erected for checking the inroads of the enemy.

GUARACHI, a juriſdiction ſix leagues E. of Lima, in the empire of Peru, in South America. Extends itſelf above 40 leagues along the Cordilleras; abounding in fruits, wheat, barley, maize, and other grains. It has alſo ſome ſilver mines, but few are wrought, as the ſilver is but indifferent.

GUARICO, a town ſituated on the N. ſide of the iſland of St. Domingo, one of the Antilles, in the Atlantic ocean in America. It is alſo called Cape François, and lies in lat. 19. 55. N. It is near half a league in length, and contains about 14 or 1500 inhabitants, being a mixture of Creols, Europeans, Negroes, Mulattos, and Caſts. Here is a church, a good ſquare, a college of Jeſuits, a nunnery, an hoſpital, and a convent of religious. The town lies open, without

out any other defence than a ſingle rampart: but it is well garriſoned within.

The place is extremely well cultivated, being ſown with every ſpecies of grain. The ſervile work is all done by negroes, and the people here are rich enough to ſend large returns to France for the European commodities brought hither. The grounds here are laid out in plantations of ſugar, indigo, tobacco, and coffee; the joint produce of which is ſo large that 30,000 tons are annually exported to France. It is in theſe reſpects a very conſiderable colony to France, no leſs than 160 ſail, ſmall and great, coming annually from France, from 150 to 500 tons, to Guarico. All theſe ſhips come loaded with goods and proviſions; and every one returns with 30, or 40,000 dollars in ſpecie. Thoſe only which go from Guarico, excluſive of the cargo, which conſiſts of the products of the colony, carry to France every year half a million of dollars. Not one fourth part of the cargo of ſo many ſhips can be conſumed in this colony and its dependencies; and conſequently, it muſt find a great account in its trade with the Spaniſh ſettlements, as the Havannah, Carraccas, Santa Martha, Carthagena, Terra Firma, Nicaragua, and Honduras. See Cape FRANÇOIS.

GUARMOY, a town in the juriſdiction of Peru, lying in 18°. 3′. 53″. S. lat. in the South Seas. It is but ſmall, conſiſting of about 70 families, ſome of which are Spaniards. It is the reſidence of a corregidore. It has a good harbour, and lies 134 miles N. W. of Lima, in long. 78. 12. W.

GUA-

GUAXACA, a province belonging to the audience of Mexico, or New Spain, in North America. It reaches from the bay of Mexico on the N. to the South Sea, having the province of Tlaſcula on the N. W. and thoſe of Chiapa and Tabaſco on the S. E. It extends nearly 95 leagues along the South Sea, 50 along the bay of Mexico, and near 120, ſay ſome, along the confines of Tlaſcala, but not above 50 on thoſe of Chiapa. The air here is good, and the ſoil fruitful, eſpecially in mulberry-trees: ſo that it produces more ſilk than any province in America. Except the valley of Guaxaca, the greateſt part is mountainous, yet abounding with wheat, cattle, ſugar, cotton, honey, cocoa, plantanes, and other fruits. It has rich mines of gold, ſilver, and lead; and all its rivers have gold in their ſands. Caſſia, cochineal, cryſtal, and copperas, abound alſo here. Were the people of this province induſtrious, they might be the richeſt in the Weſt Indies; but they are accuſtomed to a lazy life by the clergy, who have 120 monaſteries, beſides ſeveral hoſpitals, ſchools, and other places of public charity: inſomuch that the Indians purchaſe proviſions principally by the gold which the women pick up in the rivers. This province was formerly reckoned to contain 150 conſiderable towns, beſides upwards of 300 villages. But now the province is ſaid to be thinly inhabited. Great part of the eſtates belonging to the Cortez family is ſaid to lie in this country.

The vinello, a drug, uſed as a perfume to give chocolate a flavour, is the produce of Guaxaca. It grows indeed in divers parts of Mexico, but no where ſo plentifully as in this province.

This

This vinello is a little pod full of black ſmall ſeeds; it is four or five inches long; and when dried, it very much reſembles the ſtem of a tobacco-leaf. It grows on a fine ſort of vine, which climbs and claſps about trees. The flower is yellow, which turns to a pod; it is firſt green, but when ripe it turns yellow. Then the Indians, who manufacture and ſell it cheap to the Spaniards, gather and lay it in the ſun, which renders it ſoft, and it changes to a cheſnut colour; at which time they frequently flatten the pod betwixt their fingers.

GUAXACA, the capital of the laſt mentioned province, bearing its name, in New Spain, in North America. It is the ſee of a biſhop, and the reſidence of a governor. It lies 120 miles W. of Spirito Santo, and 230 S. of the city of Mexico, 132 in the ſame direction from the gulph of this laſt name, and of Vera Cruz, in the delightful valley of Guaxaca, which is 40 miles in length, and 20 in breadth; and in the road leading through Chiapa to Guatimala. Here is a very ſtately cathedral, and it contains ſeveral thouſand families, both Spaniards and Indians. Of the former are ſeveral which are rich, and deſcended from the old Spaniſh governors. This, though a middling city, and but indifferently built, carries on a conſiderable trade both with the North and South Seas. The river here is not fortified: ſo that ſmall veſſels might eaſily ſail up and ſubdue the country. The beſt chocolate in America is made here by the nuns, and exported from hence to Spain. In this valley are ſeveral rich towns, cloiſters, and churches; with an excellent breed of horſes; and great herds of black cattle and ſheep, which furniſh

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the clothiers of Los Angelos with wool, and Spain with hides. The Creolian clergy here are as great enemies to the Spanish clergy as the native Americans are. According to some, the proper name of Guaxara is Antiquera; but this last, others make a separate town, and bishop's see also, situated about 80 miles to the S. W. It is said to have a stately cathedral, adorned with many large and high pillars of marble, each of which is as one entire stone. It is situated in lat. 18. 2. N. Long. 101. 10. W.

GUAYALAS, a province and jurisdiction in the archbishopric of Lima, in the kingdom of Peru, in South America. Extends along the center of the Cordilleras; begins 50 leagues from Lima N. N. E. Produces grain, fruits, and pasture for cattle.

GUAYAQUIL, CITY OF. This is the second city of Spanish origin, being as ancient as the year 1534. It is situate in 2 degrees S. lat. 11″. 21′. 78 deg. 17 min. W. long. Cindad Viega, or Old Town, was its first situation; but it was removed about a quarter of a league in 1693 by Orellana; and the communication over the great ravins, or hollows of water, preserved between the old and new towns by a wooden bridge of half a quarter of a league. The city is about two miles in extent. It is defended by three forts, two on the river near the city, and the third behind it, guarding the entrance of a ravin, or water-flood. The churches, convents, and houses, are of wood. There are here two convents, a college of Jesuits, and an hospital. The jurisdiction of the city is under a corregidore, who holds his office for five years, and is sub-

ſubordinate to the preſident and audience of Quito. The revenues are managed by a treaſurer and an accomptant, who receive the tribute of the Indians, the duties on imports and exports, and the taxes of commodities, which are conſumed there, or carried through it. The eccleſiaſtical government is lodged in the biſhop of Quito's vicar. This city is computed to contain 20,000 inhabitants, Europeans, Creols, and other Caſts, beſides a great number of ſtrangers drawn hither by commercial intereſts. Here is a militia: one company entirely Europeans, and called the foreign company, is the moſt numerous, and makes the beſt appearance. Without conſidering their wealth and ſtation, they appear in arms, and pay a proper obedience to their own officers, being generally ſuch as have ſerved in Europe, and therefore more expert in military affairs. The corregidore is the commander in chief, having under him a colonel and a major for diſcipling the other companies. The natives, notwithſtanding the heat of the climate, are not tawny; and the Spaniards, though not fair, have children here born of Spaniſh women exceeding fair, and finely featured, with fair hair and ruddy complexions, and this is the moſt common complexion, which renders them juſtly admired, and ſtiled the handſomeſt both in the province of Quito, and even in all Peru. To theſe perſonal advantages is added an elegance and extraordinary politeneſs of manners and behaviour, with an elegance of dreſs peculiar to the women of Guayakal. The uſual and moſt common bread of the natives of Guayakal is criollo, made of unripe plantanes, ſliced, roaſted, and ſerved up as bread, which is preferred to wheat-

wheat-bread, even by the Europeans. Oyſters and lobſters abound here in the Salt Creek; other fiſh in the neighbourhood is bad, full of bones, and unpalatable. The water every where round is brackiſh, and good water is not to be had nearer than four or five leagues up the river. The purple of Punta, a place in the juriſdiction of Guayakal, is reckoned to exceed all others in the univerſe, and to vie with that of the Tyrians; it is obtained from a ſhell-fiſh no bigger than a nut. With this valuable and ſcarce purple the threads of cotton, ribbands, laces, and the like are dyed; and the weight and colour are ſaid to exceed according to the hours of the day; ſo that one of the firſt preliminaries to a contract is to ſettle the time when it ſhall be weighed. Theſe fiſh are called turbines; and the curious aver that a thread of flax is very different in colour to a thread of cotton. It would therefore be proper to make repeated experiments on threads of ſilk, flax, cotton, and wool. The dye is only the blood of the fiſh, preſſed out by a particular proceſs; and the cotton ſo dyed is called, by way of eminence, caracollillo. The river of Guayakal is the channel of its commerce; and the diſtance of the navigable part of it, to the cuſtom-houſe of Babahoio, is reckoned about 24 leagues; and to Caracol, which is the landing place where the land-carriage begins, is 28 leagues and better. The commerce of Guayakal may be divided into reciprocal and tranſitory; the firſt conſiſting of the products and manufactures of its juriſdiction; the laſt in reſpect to its port, where the goods from the provinces of Peru, Terra Firma, and Guatimala, conſigned to the mountains, are landed: and

and on the other hand, thoſe from the mountains, deſigned for the above-mentioned provinces, are brought hither and ſhipped for their reſpective ports. The cocoa, one of its principal products, is exported chiefly to Panama, Sanſonate, El Realejo, and other ports of New Spain, and alſo to thoſe of Peru, though little or no uſe of cocoa is made at Guayakal, where it is in ſuch plenty. Timber, its next article of commerce, is ſent to Callao; and ſalt is not the leaſt advantageous article, though the principal market for this commodity is in the inland towns in the province of Quito. The laſt article is the trade in horned cattle, mules, and colts: there are other ſmaller articles, which though ſingly of no great conſequence, yet jointly are equal to any of the former: ſuch are, Guinea pepper, drugs, lana de ceibo, by which numbers of the lower claſs of people acquire a very comfortable living. The lana de ceibo, or wool, is the product of a very high and tufted tree of that name, being finer than cotton, whence the natives think it cannot be ſpun, and therefore it is only uſed in matraſſes, or beds, as we do down. The goods imported into this juriſdiction from Peru, in return for the above-mentioned commodities, are wine, brandy, oil, and dried fruits. From Quito, it receives bayes, tucayos, flour, papas, bacon-hams, cheeſe. From Panama European goods purchaſed at the fairs; and from New Spain ſome iron, but very indifferent, being brittle and vitreous; alſo naptha, and tar for ſhipping. The tranſitory commerce is more conſiderable, conſiſting of the reciprocal exchange between Quito and Lima, of their reſpective commodities.

GUAYRA,

GUAYRA, a diſtrict, or ſubdiviſion, of the province of Rio de la Plata, in South America. It is bounded on the N. by the unknown tracts of Braſil, and the nation of the Tupiques; on the E. by the captainry of St. Vincent, in the ſame country, and partly by the Northern ocean: on the S. it has the province of Urvaica, and part of that of Parana; and on the W. the remainder of the ſame province, from which it is divided by the river of that name. It is computed to be about 150 leagues in its greateſt extent from E. to W. and about 140 from N. to S. only its boundaries towards Braſil are unknown. The Tropic of Capricorn cuts it almoſt into two equal parts: ſo that its climate muſt be extremely hot, though moiſt, on account of the vaſt dews and rains to which it is ſubject. It is, for the laſt reaſon, very fruitful in proviſions, as well as diſeaſes; and is repreſented by ſome as a fitter habitation for wild beaſts than human creatures. And yet we are told, that it was pretty well peopled at the firſt coming of the Spaniards hither; and this is further confirmed by the number of towns, villages, &c. ſince deſtroyed, partly by the ſickneſs, and partly by the inhumanity of the Braſilian Portugueſe, who either deſtroyed, or forced them away. The inhabitants of two little Spaniſh towns in this diſtrict are the poſterity of ſome of thoſe who ſettled here in the year 1550; and both they, and the reſt of the inhabitants, live but miſerably; having no bread but that which they make of the root called mandioc; nor fleſh, but that of ſuch wild beaſts as they kill.

It is watered by ſeveral rivers which fall into the Parapana, which laſt deſcends from the ſouthern

ſouthern mountains of Braſil, and is of a conſiderable magnitude before it falls into the Parana. The principal ſtreams that empty themſelves into the Parapana are the Tibaxiva, Pirapus, and Itangua, beſides others of leſs note. Both ſides of thoſe rivers are covered with ſeveral ſorts of trees: the moſt valued among theſe, by the natives, are cedars, which are very numerous; and ſo tall and large, that they make veſſels out of a ſingle trunk, carrying 20 oars. Other trees produce excellent fruits; and ſome yield a good ſort of balſam. Among thoſe woods harbour innumerable wild beaſts, of which tygers are the moſt dangerous. Here ſnakes are alſo very numerous, large, and pernicious. Among the milder animals are abundance of ſwine, that range in the foreſts and woods along the rivers, thriving on the fruits which falls from the trees. Theſe have a kind of portuberance, or excreſcence, like a navel, on their backs; which, if not cut off before they are killed, will corrupt and poiſon their fleſh. Bees ſwarm every where, and yield plenty of very good honey; but the wax cannot be rightly whitened. The Jeſuits, after their firſt coming, and civilizing, in ſome meaſure, the natives, built ſome towns along the rivers; the principal of theſe are our Lady of Loretto; about four leagues higher up is that of San Ignaço, Itaburaca, &c. And after them, the natives being protected by the Spaniards, built 11 more. See GUIARA-TOWN.

GUIANA, or CARIBIANA, a country of very large extent, and a ſubdiviſion of Terra Firma, in South America. It is bounded by the Atlantic ocean to the N. and E. Andaluſia, and the

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province of the Amazons to the W. and S. in which are included Surinam, a Dutch colony; and Caen, or Equinoctial France, is ſituated between the equator and lat. 8. N. and between long. 50 and 65 W. extending from the mouth of the river Oronoque to that of the Amazons, or Maragnon. The extent of Guiana, from S. to N. is upwards of 500 miles; but it is much leſs towards the E. and W. Its length from the boundaries of Popayan to the Atlantic ocean is about 1100 miles. All that part of the coaſt, lying to the S. of the North Cape, has been yielded to the Portugueſe, and reckoned part of Braſil. The French have ſome ſettlements in the iſle of Cayenne, and the adjacent coaſt; and the Dutch have Surinam and Barbice. The beſt geographers divide it into two parts, namely, Guiana Proper, which is the inland country, and Caribiana, which lies along the coaſt. The former is called El Dorada, or the Gold Country, by the Spaniards, on account of the immenſe riches it is ſuppoſed to contain.

This country is inhabited by a vaſt number of nations. But the ſea-coaſt is the only part which is beſt known, and is divided into Indian, French, and Dutch Guiana.

Indian Guiana contains all the country which lies between the mouth of the river of Amazon and Cape d'Orange, an extent of above 200 miles. It is all very low land, and near the ſea almoſt overflowed. The air is ſo unwholeſome, that Europeans cannot bear it; and even the natives are put to great ſtraits; for having no high ground to build houſes, they are obliged to make their huts on trees, where they look like large bird-neſts.

French

French Guiana contains above 200 miles along the coaſt, and begins at Cape d'Orange, a low point of land jetting out into the ſea, and which is known by three little hills that are ſeen beyond it. See CAYENE.

Dutch Guiana, once called Engliſh Guiana, as formerly belonging to the Engliſh, from whom the Dutch took it, begins at the river Maroni, where the Engliſh had built a little fort, in lat. 6. 10. N. and extends to the mouth of the river Oronoko. See SURINAM.

GUIAQUIL. See GUAYAQUIL. It is a town in the province of the ſame name, ſituated on the river Guiaquil, in Peru, in South America, which ſome miles below it falls into the Pacific ocean. It lies 52 miles N. E. of Payta, and is ſubject to Spain. Lat. 2. 11. S. Long. 81. 10. W.

GUIARA. See GUAYRA. A town of Terra Firma, in South America. It has a harbour on the Caracoa-coaſt, 212 miles E. of Maracaibo; where, in the years 1739, and 1743, the Engliſh were twice repulſed, and loſt ſome men in attacking this place. It lies in lat. 10. 39. S. Long. 66. 1. W.

HACHA, RIO DE LA, a ſmall province of the Terra Firma, in South America. It has part of the lake of Maraco on the E. part of Vene-

Venezuela on the S. the province of Santa Martha on the W. and the North Sea on the N.

HACHA, RIO DE LA, the capital of the laſt mentioned province, bearing the ſame name. The Spaniards formerly called it Nueſtra Senora de los Neieves, and afterwards De los Remedios. It is ſituated on the banks of the river of the ſame name, namely, Rio de la Hacha; and but a ſhort mile from the ſea-coaſt upon a little hill, and containing not much above 100 houſes. It lies about 246 miles E. of Carthagena. At this place the Spaniſh galleons firſt touch upon their arrival in South America, of which expreſſes are ſent to all the ſettlements in the country, to give them notice to prepare their treaſure which is to be ſent to Europe.

HAMBATO, a principal aſſiento, or juriſdiction in the province of Quito, under the Spaniards. It is ſituated near the line in 1°. 41″. 40′. S. lat. and 12 W. of the city of Quito; and has ſix ſmaller villages in its dependence. It contains about 18,000 inhabitants, who are moſtly employed in weaving ſtuffs, bayes, and knitting.

HAMPSTEAD and HIGHGATE, two villages, inland, belonging to Georgia, in North America. They are about a mile aſunder, and four miles from Savannah, the capital of the province. The inhabitants apply themſelves principally to gardening, and ſupply the town with greens, pot-herbs, roots, &c. See SAVANNAH.

HAMPTON, EAST, a town in Long Iſland, in the province of New York, and county of Suffolk, in North America.

HARLEY, a village in the county of Ulſter, in the province of New York, in North America.

HAVAN-

HAVANNAH, a town ſituated on the N. W. part of the iſland of Cuba, one of the greater Antilles, in America, at the entrance of the gulph of Mexico. The city and port of Havannah ſtands 191 miles almoſt directly S. of Cape Florida, and conſequently commands the gulph of that name. It was built by James Velaſquez, who conquered the iſland of Cuba, and ſettled a little town, which was the mother of this, in 1511. It was originally called the Port of Carennas; afterwards, when the city by its alteration of ſite, and encreaſe of wealth, grew conſiderable, it was called St. Chriſtopher of the Havannah. Theſe alterations happened but by ſlow degrees, as we may conceive from the following account of the accidents which have befallen it. In 1536, it was taken by a French pyrate, and was of ſo inconſiderable a value, that it was ranſomed for 700 pieces of eight. It was taken ſome time after by the Engliſh, a ſecond time by the French; nor was it till the reign of Philip II. of Spain, that the importance of it was thoroughly underſtood, and any care taken in fortifying it. What was then done, proved not ſufficient; and moſt of the fortifications were in a very bad condition, when Francis Coreal was there in 1666; and very little better when he viſited it again, 20 years afterwards. Since the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon to the throne of Spain, more pains have been taken about it, and therefore we ſhall deſcribe firſt the city, and then the port, in the condition they now are.

The city of Havannah, according to the laſt and moſt exact map of theſe parts, lies in 23°. 12′. of lat. and conſequently within 20 of the

the Tropick of Cancer; and its long. W. from London is 82°. 13′. It ſtands on the W. ſide of the harbour, in a very beautiful and pleaſant plain, having the ſea before it, and being ſurrounded on all ſides by two branches of the river Lagida. The buildings are fair, but not high, built of ſtone, and make a very good appearance, though it is ſaid they are but meanly furniſhed. Here are eleven churches and monaſteries, and two handſome hoſpitals. The churches are rich and magnificent; that dedicated to St. Clara having ſeven altars, all adorned with plate to a great value, and the monaſtery adjoining contains 100 nuns, with their ſervants, all habited in blue. It is not, as ſome have reported, a biſhop's ſee, though the biſhop generally reſides there; but the cathedral is at St. Jago, and the revenue of this prelate not leſs than 50,000 pieces of eight per annum. Authors differ exceedingly as to the number of inhabitants in this city. A Spaniſh writer, who was there in 1700, and who had reaſon to be well acquainted with the place, computed them at 26,000; and we may very well ſuppoſe that they are increaſed ſince. They are a more polite and ſociable people than the inhabitants of any of the ports on the continent, and of late imitate the French both in their dreſs, and in their manners. One part of the iſland is under the juriſdiction of this city, as the other is under that of St. Jago; but the diſtrict belonging to the Havannah is by far the beſt cultivated, and has the moſt towns and villages in it; and theſe are not above ſix in number, which ſhews how ſtrangely things are managed in this part of the world.

The port is not only the best in the West Indies, but perhaps one of the finest in the universe. It is so capacious, that 2000 sail of ships may ride there commodiously, without either cable or anchor; and there is, generally speaking, six fathom water in the bay. The entrance is by a channel about two-thirds of a mile in length, which is pretty narrow, and of difficult access in an enemy, being well defended by forts and platforms of guns; and through it you come into the bay, which lies like a bason at the bottom of it, with a small island at the E. corner thereof. At the entrance of the channel there are two strong castles, which are supposed to be capable of defending the place against any number of ships. The first of these is styled El Morro, and stands on the E. side of the channel. It is a kind of a triangle, fortified with bastions, on which are mounted about 40 pieces of cannon, stiled the twelve apostles, almost level with the water, and carrying each a ball of 36 pounds. On the other side of the channel stands a strong fort, called the Puntal by some authors, and indeed by the Spanish writer I chiefly follow, stiled Mosa de Maria: it is a regular square, with good bastions, well mounted with cannon. Between this city and the sea there is a watch-tower, where a man sits in a round lanthorn at the top, and on the appearance of ships at sea, put out as many flags from thence as there are sail. Some writers place this tower on the other side of the channel: perhaps a new one may be built there. The third is stiled the fort: it is a small, but strong work on the W. side, towards the end of the narrow channel, with four large bastions, and a platform,

form, mounted with 60 pieces of heavy cannon. Besides these, there are two forts, one on the E. side, called Cajemar, the other on the W. called the fort of Chorrera, of 12 guns each. The governor is, generally speaking, a person of known courage and capacity, and has a very numerous garrison, as indeed he ought to have, considering that it is very properly stiled the key of the West Indies; and if they lose it, the whole of the Spanish monarch must lie at the mercy of the power possessed thereof. If ever this place should be attacked by us, it must be by a land force, for it is impossible to make any impression here by a fleet only. The castles which defend the channel must be taken before we can pretend to enter the port; and indeed were they once taken, the rest of the design would easily succeed.

We are now to speak of the commerce in this port, which is the most considerable of any in America. We will, for the sake of perspicuity, divide it into the particular commerce of the isle of Cuba, and into the general by the galleons. The former consists in hides, usually stiled, of the Havannah, which are excellent, and of great value; sugar, which is also a good commodity; tobacco, admirable in its kind; ginger, mastic, aloes, sarsaparilla, other drugs, and great quantities of tortoise-shell. It must be observed, that the commerce of the island of Cuba is not entirely confined to the Havannah, but extends itself to other ports, particularly St. Jago, where there are frequently many little vessels from the Canaries, and other parts, which trade entirely for the commodities of the country. As to the general commerce, this port is

the place of rendezvous for all the ſhips, particularly from Porto Bello, and Vera Cruz, which return into Spain from the Indies; ſo that there are frequently 50 or 60 ſail in the port at once. While they ride here, there is a fair kept on ſhore, where they trade for immenſe ſums; and with ſo great honour, that it is ſaid they never open the bales, but take the goods according to the bills of parcels, without any inſpection. While the fleet is in the bay, proviſions are exceſſively dear on ſhore, and money ſo plenty, that a Spaniard expects half a piece of eight a day from a male ſlave, and half ſo much from a female, out of what they earn by their labour. The fleet generally ſails from thence through the channel of Bahama, in the month of September; and is the richeſt in the world, ſince in ſilver and merchandize there is ſeldom leſs than 30,000,000 pieces of eight on board, or 6,750,000 pounds of our money. Dr. Gemelli Careri, who was here in 1698, tells us of an extraordinary pearl that he ſaw here; it was in ſhape a perfect pear, in weight 60 grains, and was abſolutely clear and ripe. This pearl was taken at Panama by a black belonging to a prieſt, who refuſed to ſell it to the viceroy of Peru for 70,000 pieces of eight, ſaying, he would carry it to his majeſty himſelf; but he died at the Havannah, and the pearl was ſent to the king by another prieſt to whom he entruſted it.

The town of Havannah is not two miles in circuit; and the number of inhabitants does not exceed 26,000 ſouls, conſiſting of Spaniards, mulattoes, and negroes, beſides the garriſon, the governor of which is ſtiled captain-general of the iſland. Here reſides the biſhop of St. Jago, which

which is the capital of Cuba, but now in a declining ſtate: and therefore moſt perſons of figure and fortune live at the Havannah. It belongs to Spain. Havannah lies 18 leagues from Cape de Sed, which is a promontory on the N. ſide of the iſland. The heat here is extreme, and more intolerable even in the night than in the day time.

HAYES, Iſland, in New South Wales, in North America, formed by the rivers Nelſon and Hayes, which, after running a little way together, ſeparate again. The moſt northern is ſtill called Nelſon river, near the mouth of which ſtands Fort York, by the French called Bourbon, as alſo is the river Nelſon. The moſt ſouthern branch is called Hayes river by the Engliſh, and St. Thereſa by the French. On either branch, the ſtream is ſo gentle that large veſſels and ſhallops might be built there to carry bulky goods, and alſo return againſt the ſtream.

HENRICO, a county of Virginia, in North America.

HENRY, CAPE, the S. promontory of Virginia, in North America. It is ſituated at the entrance of the Cheſapeak bay. Lat. 36. 57. N. Long. 76. 23. W.

HEVE, or LA HAIVE, a port of Acadia, in North America, where the French had a fort defended with paliſades which the Engliſh took by capitulation, with the loſs of ſome of their people and their commander, whom Charlevoix ſays, they kept till the treaty of Breda.

HIGHLANDS, a range of mountains, ſtretching weſtward from Hudſon's river, dividing the county of Ulſter, in the province of New York, from that river; they are cloathed thick with

timber, and abound with iron ore, ponds, and fine ſtreams for iron-works.

HISPANIOLA, or St. DOMINGO. See DOMINGO. One of the Antilles iſlands, in the Atlantic ocean, in America. It is ſituated between lat. 18 and 20 N. and between long. 67 and 74 W. is upwards of 400 miles long from E. to W. and 124 broad from N. to S. The iſland partly belongs to the Spaniards, and partly to the French; which latter (their buccaneers having ſettled there before) obtained a legal right to their ſhare of the iſland by the ceſſion which the Spaniards made them of the N. W. part of Hiſpaniola, by the treaty of Ryſwick in 1697, the beſt and moſt fertile part of the beſt and moſt fertile iſland in the Weſt Indies. This is the principal ſettlement of the French in all America. The country is mixed; pretty mountainous in ſome parts; but many of theſe mountains are fertile, and covered with fine woods. Others, which are barren and rocky, had anciently mines of gold: they are not worked now; though it is judged they not only contain thoſe of gold, but mines of ſilver, copper, and iron. But the French think their labour better beſtowed on the culture of the plains for the rich commodities which vend ſo well in Europe.

This country has likewiſe prodigious fine plains of a vaſt extent, and extreme fertility, either covered with noble foreſts of timber and fruit trees, excellent in their kinds, or filled with vaſt numbers of horned cattle, ſheep, and hogs. The air of Hiſpaniola is the moſt healthy in the Weſt Indies. The country is admirably watered with rivulets as well as navigable rivers. And it is no wonder therefore that this active nation, in

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poſſeſſion of ſo extenſive a country, has reaped from it prodigious advantages. In the year 1726, they reckoned that on this iſland they had no leſs than 100,000 negroes, and 30,000 whites: that they made 60,000 hogſheads of ſugar of 500 weight each: that the indigo here was half as much in value as the ſugar: that they exported large quantities of cotton; and that they had ſent beſides to France, cacao and ginger in tolerable plenty. Since that time they raiſe coffee here to a very great amount. Now ſuppoſing that they have not improved in theſe ſeveral commodities ſince 1726, which is far from the truth, and ſuppoſe the ſugar at 20 ſhillings the hundred, the whole muſt yield 300,000 l. ſterl. The indigo is ſomewhat fallen in its price ſince; but as it has increaſed largely in its quantity, it is not too much to value it at 100,000 l. If to theſe we add the produce of cotton, cacao, ginger, and hides, it will not be too much to allow 100,000 l. more; ſo that at this rate her ſhare of the iſland is worth to France 550,000 l. ſterl. But conſidering that theſe ſeveral articles have greatly increaſed ſince that time, it will not be exceſſive to rate the value of this colony at 750,000 l. ſterl. a year.

The largeſt town in the French part of Hiſpaniola is Cape Françoiſe, which is ſituated on the northern part of the iſland, upon a very fine harbour. It is well built, and contains about 8000 inhabitants, blacks and whites. But though this be the largeſt town, Leogane, on the weſtern ſide, is a good port too, and a place of conſiderable trade, being the ſeat of government, which here is lodged in the hands of a governor and the intendant, who are mutually a check

upon each other. There are besides two other towns considerable for their trade, Petit Guaves on the W. end of the island, and Port Louis on the S. W. part.

The E. part of this island is in the possession of the Spaniards; and this is the largest part, and has most towns: their capital is St. Domingo, which was built first by Columbus, on the S. side of the island, at the mouth of the river Hayna, or Isabella, as our maps call it, in a fine plain which shews it to great advantage from the sea. In 1586, Sir Francis Drake took it, who held it a month; and then burnt part of it, but spared the rest for a ransom of 60,000 pieces of eight. This and several other places were quitted in the reign of queen Elizabeth, as being judged unpolitic then to keep them. However, Cromwell thought otherwise; for he sent his generals Penn and Venables, with the greatest force the English ever had in those seas, in order to possess themselves of St. Domingo; of which being disappointed, they afterwards, in 1654, reduced Jamaica. The trade of St. Domingo, which was a considerable one in sugar, hides, tallow, horses, hogs, and cassia, has decayed since the Spaniards have been tempted to Havannah and other places: yet for all that St. Domingo makes a good figure; and its inhabitants, including negroes, &c. are thought to exceed 25,000. These consist of Spaniards, Mestizos, Mulattoes, and Albatraces: of all which number a sixth part is supposed to be Spaniards.

HEWREUIL, a village of Canada, consisting of between 25 and 30 houses well built, with a fort, where was a governor and a garrison of 30 soldiers,

ſoldiers, and at leaſt 10 in each houſe. Theſe had been juſt ſent thither, ſays Charlevoix, by the governor of New England. It was taken by the French in the year 1708.

HOCHELAGA, a village of wild Indians, in Canada, in North America. It is pretty large, and ſituated in the iſland at this day known under the name of Montreal. It is of a round figure, and 3 rows of palliſadoes incloſe about 50 huts, each upwards of 50 paces in length, and 14 or 15 in breadth, and made in the form of funnels. The entrance to this incloſure is by one gate, over which, as well as the firſt row of palliſadoes, is a ſort of gallery, the aſcent to which is by a ladder, and it is plentifully provided with ſtones and flints for the defence of the place. The inhabitants of this village ſpeak the Huron language. It is ſituated at the foot of a mountain, which M. Carter called Montroyal, now Montreal.

HOHIO, or OHIO, a famous river of North America, having its ſource in the Apalachian mountains, near the borders of Carolina and Virginia; and after a S. W. courſe falls into the river Miſſiſſippi, of which it is reckoned the principal ſtream. See OHIO.

HONDURAS, or COMAIAGNA, a province of, Old Mexico, or New Spain, in North America, which, including the country of the Moſkitos, is ſituated between lat. 12 and 13 N. and between long. 85 and 94 W. It has the bay bearing its name and the North Sea on the N. and E. is bounded by Nicaragua and Guatimala on the S. and by Vera Paz on the W. It extends E. and W. along the North Sea above 130 leagues, and in ſome places is near 60

leagues over from N. to S. but it is narrower at both ends. The Spaniards claim this country; but the Engliſh have been long in poſſeſſion of the logwood tract in the bay of Honduras, cutting large quantities of it there every year. And the Moſkito Indians to the E. of this province have entered into treaties with the Engliſh, received them into their country, and done them ſeveral ſervices. Beſides, the Spaniards have no towns nor forts in this bay, or in the country of the Moſkitos.

This country conſiſts in general of hills and deep dales, and has a good air. It is rendered the more fruitful by the inundations of its rivers about Michaelmas, when the natives convey the water by canals to their fields and gardens. The ſoil in many parts bears Indian corn thrice a year. It moreover yields European wheat and peaſe, cotton-wool, called vigoion, &c. has excellent paſture, with honey, wax, and abundance of all ſorts of proviſions; beſides mines of gold and ſilver. It produces alſo great quantities of extraordinary large gourds, or calabaſhes; which the Hiſpaniola Indians call Hibueras. And the firſt diſcoverer ſeeing many of them float along the coaſt, called it Golfo de Hibueras, and the province itſelf Hibuera: yet afterwards finding very deep water at the great cape of this country, they called it Cabo de Honduras, i. e. the Promontory of Depth, and the country itſelf Honduras. The vineyards bear twice a year; for immediately after the vintage the vines are cut again, and the ſecond grapes are ripe before chriſtmas. The ancient inhabitants being extremely ſlothful, ſowed ſo ſparingly, that they were often in want, and

forced to feed on roots, and even on vermin and carrion. At their feasts they used to get drunk with a sort of metheglin, and then they committed the most abominable crimes, many of which they have left off, by being converted to christianity, and conversing with the Spaniards. The country was once exceeding populous, till it was thinned by the Spaniards. The natives, instead of a plough, use a long pole with two crooked staves at the end; the one bent downwards, the other upwards.

HONDURAS, BAY OF, noted for cutting of logwood as that of Campeachy formerly was. It lies in the province of the same name, in North America, betwixt Cape Honduras, in lat. 15 ½ N. and Cape Catoche, the easternmost point of Yucatan, in lat. 21 ½. Moll makes the distance betwixt these capes above 270 miles. The great lake of Nicaragua has an out-let into it by a river called Rio de Anuzelos, or Angelos, only navigable by small craft. In this bay are several small islands of which we have no account, particularly the Pearl-islands, a little to the N. But the pearls fished up here are not in such quantities as formerly, nor so large. Into this bay runs also a small river from the province of Veraguas, called by the Spaniards Rio de Sucre, i. e. Sugar river, from the sugar-works here, with which the country so abounds, that did not the Spaniards consume large quantities of it in sweetmeats and preserves, &c. they might send several ship loads of sugar into Europe.

The cutting of logwood so much complained of by the Spaniards, and assigned by them as a just provocation for the depredations on the Eng-

liſh before the commencement of the late war, we ſhall here give a brief account of.

The country where the Engliſh cut their log-wood, ſays captain Uringe, deputy-governor of St. Lucia and St. Vincent, is all a flat, and a great part of it a moraſs, with ſeveral lacunes, which are very often overflown. In the dry ſeaſon, when the cutters have found a good number of trees, they build a hut near them, where they live. After cutting down a tree, they chip off the bark and lay it in heaps; marking paths to each, that when the rains come which overflow the ground, they are as ſo many channels where they go with ſmall currents and land them, bringing them ſometimes 30 miles to the Barcaderas, whence the buyers fetch it at 5 l. a ton, Jamaica money. During the floods, the cutters dwell at the Barcaderas, which are 42 miles up the river, where they have huts built on high banks to ſecure them from the floods. As ſoon as they have notice of any veſſel's arrival at the mouth of the river, they flock down to purchaſe whatever they want.

Mr. Atkins obſerves that the cutters of log-wood were originally ſettled in the bay of Campeachy. But having been diſturbed by the Spaniards, removed to the bay of Honduras, where they ſupport themſelves by force of arms, having about 1500 maſters and ſervants. At the ſeaſon they follow the wood, which runs in a line of ſome miles, like a vein of minerals in the earth; and ſometimes they run over a great many miles, without finding a ſtick of it. They cut it in large pieces, and leave it on the ground, till the land-floods favour their bringing it into the river, whence canoes carry it to their

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grand ſtore at the Barcaderas. As they know what they muſt expect from Spaniſh clemency, they are always provided with good arms to defend themſelves. A ſervant, which is the firſt ſtep with ſeamen into the trade, is hired at a ton of logwood per month, and having one day in ſeven to himſelf, he makes 10 l. a month. Theſe, if ſober, in time become maſters, and join ſtocks, or trade, independently. They have a king choſen from among themſelves, and his conſort has the title of queen, and are governed by certain rules of their own making. The ſhips that come into the bay are alſo on their guard; and they fetch the logwood down in flat-bottomed boats, generally in the night, and take it on board in the day.

This further account we have of the logwood trade in the bay of Campeachy: Whenever ſailors at Jamaica, &c. durſt not ſtay for debt, or miſdemeanors, they uſed to get a paſſage on board any veſſel going to Campeachy. The whole cargo any man carried was a ſet of axes and hatchets, ſaws, great knives, an iron crow, a ſmall grind-ſtone, a gun, with ſtore of powder, ball, and ſmall ſhot, which being all put in a cheſt, and a tent and ſea-bed tied to it, the ſhips gave them a paſſage for their work. Their buſineſs being to cut logwood as near the water-ſide as poſſible, the ketches from New England, with proviſions to Jamaica, wanting freight back, come hither to buy logwood. Some lay up very conſiderable piles of it in a ſeaſon: and if they want to leave the place, any of the ſhips will carry them off. But this trade has often proved a nurſery for pirates, as well as a den of thieves; or when a gang of ill-deſigning fellows,

lows, viz. at Jamaica, or Martinico, have a mind to go a buccaneering, or pirating, they used to go for men to the bay of Campeachy, where they never failed to get as many bold fellows as they wanted, well armed, and all good seamen. But the neck of this trade has been broken in the bay of Campeachy, since the year 1722, when 5 Spanish frigates took or burnt 12 English ships belonging to the northern colonies, destroyed all the logwood they had cut, and put the cutters to the sword.

Some trees of the logwood itself grow very tall and straight; though mostly low and crooked. They bear a small leaf, and have a prickly underwood like our white-thorn, in both these respects. It blossoms and bears seed; which by falling off, sows the ground from which it springs up, and its vegetation is much forwarded by the inundations bringing the soil over it. All the rivers and creeks in the bay of Honduras not only swarm with alligators and guans, but fish also. Among other fowls they have guams, consos, Muscovy ducks, whistling ducks, somewhat larger than our teal, and as good to eat, cockatoos, macaws, parrots, twopenny chicks, double and single curlews, and crab-catchers.

With regard to land animals, here are wild deer, but small and lean, tygers, and monkeys. Among the little islands in the bay are great numbers of green turtle, mostly catched in nets. The manatee is also frequently met with here; and that called the Jew-fish, which exceeds all the rest in goodness, is shaped something like a cod, but thicker in proportion, and much better eating. They have very broad scales, and some of them weigh 80 lb.

The

The principal towns of this province are Valladolid, or Comaiagua, which is the capital, Truxillo, or Trugillo, Graçias a Dios, St. Pedro, Porto de Cavallos, St. Jago, with the iſland of Ruatan, or Rattan.

From Cape Graçias a Dios, the moſt eaſterly promontory of Honduras, the land falls off due S. forming another great bay, which runs along the coaſt of Nicaragua, and then bends again E. by N. to Nombre de Dios and Porto Bello.

Horne, Cape, the moſt ſoutherly promontory of Terra del Fuego, a province of South America, round which all ſhips have latterly paſſed in going out of the Atlantic, or American ocean, into the Pacific, or South Seas. In the doubling of which cape commodore, now lord, Anſon met with dreadful ſtorms, and unſpeakable hardſhips. As did Don Pizarro alſo: it being often a work of immenſe labour, owing to the nature of thoſe ſeas, and the coaſts not having been aſcertained heretofore ſo exactly as ſince. Beſides, being ſo near the S. pole, and ſo extremely cold, the ſeas are ſo ſubject to tempeſts, that it is a voyage to be executed with a great deal of ſkill, patience, and reſolution. This way of going into the South Sea however is the more eligible, as that through the Magellan ſtreights is more dangerous and tedious. It lies in lat. 55. 42. S. Long. 66. W.

Hougue, La, a little fort, ſituated two leagues beyond the Havannah, in the iſland of Cuba, in America. From hence we begin to diſcover Le Pain de Matance, a mountain, whoſe top reſembles an oven, or a loaf. It ſerves ſailors to know the bay of Matance by, which is about 14 leagues from the Havannah.

Hud-

HUDSON'S-BAY, or STREIGHT, the N. part of Canada, in North America, where the English company, of the ſame name, have ſeveral ſettlements and forts, who, by their agents, carry on here a traffic with the native Indians for beaver-ſkins and other valuable furs to a conſiderable amount, being one of the moſt profitable trades our merchants deal in. But the garriſons and forts here ſeem not to be of a ſtrength ſufficient for holding out long againſt an attack from the French and their Indian allies in that neighbourhood. This bay is about 300 leagues wide from S. to N. but above 530, by reckoning from the bottom of James bay, in lat. 51. N. to that of Repulſe bay in lat. 67. 10. N. Its breadth is unequal, being about 130 leagues where broadeſt; but it grows narrower both to the ſouthward and northward, being not much above 35 leagues broad in ſome places. At the mouth of Hudſon's bay is Reſolution iſland, alſo Mansfield iſland. And in the ſtreight are Charles iſland, Saliſbury iſland, and Nottingham iſland. From Reſolution iſland to Cape Diggs, at the entrance of the bay, is about 140 leagues in length. The land on both ſides, namely, Labrador and North Main, are inhabited by ſavages, of which we have little or no knowledge. That part of the bay on the W. ſide, in about lat. 57. is called Button's bay, and the eaſtern part, from lat. 55. 15. to lat. 51. and the moſt ſouthern part is called James's bay. The coaſt from Cape Henrietta Maria, in lat. 55. 15. where James's bay begins, to the bottom of the bay is about 100 leagues, and of much the ſame breadth all the way, being between 50 and 60 leagues over.

On

On the eaſtern ſhore, or Labrador coaſt, lie ſeveral iſlands, called the North ſleepers, the Weſt ſleepers, Baker's dozen, Belchier's iſles; and in James's bay are Bear iſland, Viner's iſland, Charlton iſland, Cape Hope iſland, &c. All the country from Burton's bay S. and E. as far as Labrador, is called New South Wales.

The French pretend to have had poſſeſſion of this bay prior to Hudſon, who firſt diſcovered it for the Engliſh.

HUDSON'S RIVER, a large river of North America, whoſe ſource has not been diſcovered. Running ſouthward it approaches the Mohawk's river, within a few miles of Sacoundauga, in North America. In the general we know that it has its ſource in the mountainous uninhabited country, between the lakes Ontario and Champlain. From its approach near Saucondauga, it runs N. and N. eaſterly towards lake St. Sacrament, now lake George, within 10 miles of it. The courſe then to New York is very uniform, being in the main S. 12 or 15°. W. The diſtance from Albany to Lake George is computed at 65 miles. This river in that interval is navigable only to batteaus, and interrupted by rifts, which occaſion two poſtages of half a mile each. In the paſſage from Albany to Fort Edward, the whole land carriage is 12 miles. There are three routes from Crown Point to Hudſon's river, in the way to Albany; one through Lake George, another through a branch of Lake Chaplain, bearing a ſouthern courſe, and terminating in a baſon, ſeveral miles E. of Lake George, called the South bay. The third is by aſcending the Wood-ceek, a ſhallow ſtream about 30 yards broad, which coming from the S. E. empties itſelf

ſelf into the S. branch of the Lake Champlain. The place where theſe routes meet on the banks of Hudſon's river is called the carrying-place. Here Fort Lyman, ſince called Fort Edward, is built; but Fort Henry, a much ſtronger garriſon, was erected at the S. end of Lake George, after the repulſe of the French forces under the command of baron Dieſkaw, on the 8th of September, 1755. General Shirley thought it more adviſeable to ſtrengthen Fort Edward in the concurrence of the three routes, than to erect the other at Lake George, 17 miles to the northward of it, and wrote a very preſſing letter to Sir William Johnſon, who then commanded the provincial troops. The paſſage through the highlands is about 16 miles; the tide flows a few miles above Albany. The navigation is ſafe, and performed in ſloops of 40 or 50 tons burden. About 60 miles above the city of New York the water is freſh, and in wet ſeaſons very low, and abounds with variety of fiſh.

The advantages of this river for penetrating into Canada, and protecting the ſouthern colonies, from the irruptions of the French, by ſecuring the commands of the lakes, and cutting off the communication between the French ſettlements on St. Laurence and Miſſiſſippi, muſt be very apparent, though but lately attended to.

HURON, LAKE OF, a large collection of inland waters, in Canada, in North America. It lies between lat. 43 and 46 N. and between long. 84 and 89 W. The lands about this lake are called the country of the Hurons, where the French pretend to have ſettlements and alliances with the Indians, who have found out a way from this lake to the French ſettlements on the

Miſſiſ-

Miſſiſſipi river, which empties itſelf into the gulph of Mexico, in North America.

HURONS, ſavages inhabiting the country contiguous to the lake of the ſame name, in Canada, in North America: their true name is Yendats. That of Hurons is in accommodation to the French manner, who, at firſt obſerving theſe ſavages with their hair cut very ſhort, and ſticking up ſo oddly as to give them a very frightful appearance, cried out 'quels hures!' and hence they accuſtomed themſelves to call them Hurons.

If we may credit their moſt ancient traditions, this nation originally conſiſted only of cantons, or villages, which in time were divided into four, or they adopted two others. The different adoptions which theſe four tribes made of the neighbouring people rendered the nation of the Hurons very powerful in compariſon of all others, on account of the care they took to be always united in a body: a point which the Algonquins did not regard, who were originally a great deal more numerous than the Hurons; for though among the latter the adopted tribes always retained their primitive names, they took alſo the generical denomination, which was of the two firſt, and ſpoke with the language, with ſome ſmall but inconſiderable difference: ſome however give themſelves the name of Ontaononoues, that is ſuch as ſpeak the better language.

It ſeems even that this uniformity of language may induce one to believe, that the confederacy, union, or adoption of theſe tribes only ſerved to bring them back to their firſt origin: whereas the Iroquois, and the Andaſtouez, who are certainly derived from the ſame ſtock, having

ing never united again, ſince the ſeparation has altered alſo their languages much more, which are plainly dialects of that of the Hurons. Not only the whole nation, but alſo each canton or village became divided into three principal families. It is hence to be obſerved that the uniformity which upon this reigned among the whole nation, and thoſe branches which aroſe from it at the time of the diſcovery of Canada, is a plain proof, that if the three families are not three diſtinct branches of the ſame ſtock, their union is at leaſt of a very great antiquity, and of a higher date than the ſeparation of the Iroquois from the Hurons.

The country inhabited by the latter people at the beginning of the laſt century, had the Lake Erie to the S. the Lake Huron to the W. and Lake Ontario to the E. It is ſituated between lat. 42 and 45 N. Here they have a good many cantons, or villages; and the whole nation ſtill conſiſts of between 40, and 50,000 ſouls, though already diminiſhed by reaſon of its wars with the Iroquois. This country, generally ſpeaking, is not the moſt fertile in all New France; but there are ſome cantons in it that are very much ſo: and were it as well peopled as the beſt provinces are, it might eaſily, with good cultivation, ſupport all its inhabitants: beſides, its air is very healthy. Many of the French have been in this country for a long time: they ſuffered extremely by famine and other calamities, which are the attendants of war, but none died here of diſtempers, and even very few were taken ill.

In this country are large meadows, which would bear wheat and all other grain that one would

would ſow in them. The foreſts are full of very beautiful trees, eſpecially cedars of a prodigious magnitude, and proportionable tallneſs. The country is well watered, and the water is very good. Here are, it is ſaid, ſome ſtones that can be fuſed like metal, and contain veins of ſilver. But we know not what credit to give to ſome accounts, which tell us of two animals that are pretty ſingular, and natives of this country, and to be met with no where elſe. The one is a bird that mews like a cat; the other is a kind of hare that ſings like a bird, and whoſe fleſh is very delicate.

This country is advantageouſly ſituated for commerce: whence, by means of the lakes with which it is almoſt ſurrounded, it would be an eaſy matter to puſh on diſcoveries even to the extreme parts of North America. In ſhort, it would be no leſs ſo to gain a nation from which, it ſeems, much is to be feared and hoped for the eſtabliſhment and increaſe of any colony. The nations with which a trade may be carried on are the mountaineers below Quebec, the Alonquez beyond it, in its neighbourhood all around, and in an iſland formed by the great river Outaouais above Montreal, and the remainder under the appellation of Nipiſſings, or Nipiſſiriniens. And laſtly, the Outaouais ſpread up and down in divers places on their river, bearing the ſame name; of which they pretend to be ſuch abſolute maſters, as to eſtabliſh a right of exacting toll upon all the canoes that go up or come down that ſtream.

Nothing is wanting, ſays Charlevoix, but to gain the Iroquois, allies to the Engliſh; and that was a point of infinite conſequence: perhaps

haps this might, with little difficulty, have been crowned with ſucceſs, if in the beginning the ſavages had ſeen us (the French) ſufficiently able to give law to them, or at leaſt to make the balance turn to the ſide of their enemies the Hurons, who were our allies. A thouſand men, continues he, entertained in the country of the Hurons, with three or four little forts, would have been ſufficient for this purpoſe: but the neceſſity of ſuch a meaſure was not perceived, till it was too late. The opportunity was ſo much the more favourable at that time, namely in 1634, for obliging the Iroquois to come to an accommodation, and perhaps binding them to us for ever, as hitherto they had no trade with the Dutch ſettlement in their neighbourhood, and our allies were very much diſpoſed to unite their forces, in order to make the laſt effort againſt them, and ſtrike an effectual blow.

The Huron language extends itſelf as far as the Alonquin; which undoubtedly ariſes from this, namely, that the people who ſpeak it, have always been of a leſs roving and migratory diſpoſition than the Alonquins; I ſay the Huron language, to conform myſelf to the moſt commonly received opinion, for ſome ſtill maintain that the Iroquois is the mother-tongue. However, all the ſavages dwelling to the S. of the river St. Laurence, from that of Sorel, as far as the extremity of Erie lake, and even pretty near Virginia, ſpeak this language: and whoever underſtands the Huron, underſtands them all. The dialects of it have extremely multiplied, and they are almoſt as numerous as the villages. The five cantons which conſtitute the Iroquois republic have each their own dialect. And all

that

that formerly was called Huron indifferently had not the ſame language.

It is to be obſerved that as the greateſt part of the ſavages of Canada have always had a commerce with one another, as well allies as enemies; and though the three mother-tongues, namely, the Sioux, Huron, and Algonquin, have no kind of affinity or analogy with each other, theſe people have nevertheleſs found means to trade together without a truche man, as he is called, or interpreter; either long cuſtom rendering it an eaſy matter to make themſelves underſtood by ſigns, or having formed a ſort of common jargon which they learn by continual practice.

The Huron language has great copiouſneſs, energy, and grandeur; all which properties perhaps united together are not to be found in any of the moſt beautiful tongues we know of: and thoſe people who ſpeak it, though reduced to a handful of men, have ſtill ſuch an elevation of ſoul as agrees much better with the majeſty of their language than the miſerable condition to which they are now brought.

The people of the Huron language have always not only been more employed in the cultivation of their ground than the others, but they have ſpread themſelves likewiſe a great deal leſs: and this has produced two effects; for, in the firſt place, they have been better ſettled, better accommodated with dwellings, and better fortified. There has always been among them more policy, and a form of government, the remains of which are here more eaſily to be traced. The poſt of chieftain, at leaſt among the true Hurons, who are the Tionnantates, is hereditary. In the

next

next place, till the wars of the Iroquois happened, their country was better peopled, though polygamy has never been admitted among them. They have alſo the reputation of being more laborious, more induſtrious, and more dexterous in managing their affairs, and more diſcreet in their proceedings; which cannot be aſcribed to any thing elſe but to the diſpoſition for ſociety, which they have preſerved better than the others. Among the Hurons this is eſpecially to be remarked, that forming almoſt no longer the body of a nation, and being reduced to two middling villages, very remote from each other, they are nevertheleſs ſtill the ſoul of all their counſels, when matters of any general concern come to be debated. It is true, that notwithſtanding this diverſity, which is not to be obſerved at firſt ſight, there is a good deal of reſemblance in the character of the minds, manners, and cuſtoms of all the ſavages in Canada: but this is the conſequence of intercourſe and commerce, which they have had continually with one another for many ages paſt.

With regard to the government, cuſtoms, and religion of theſe people, I hitherto, continues Charlevoix, ſee nothing but a chaos, which is not poſſible to be diſintangled. It would be but little ſatisfactory to publiſh all the extravagancies which have been attributed to theſe ſavages by ſome travellers, or have been drawn from their traditions. Theſe beſides have ſo little certainty, and are ſo groſly contradictory to one another for the moſt part, that it is nearly impoſſible to draw any certain concluſion from them; how indeed could a people, ſuch as we find theſe to be, tranſmit with any meaſure of fidelity what

what has paſſed among them for a ſucceſſion of ſo many ages, having had no helps to aſſiſt their memory? And is it to be eaſily conceived that men who think ſo little about futurity, ſhould ever have been ſufficiently taken up about paſt events, ſo as to have preſerved a faithful remembrance of them? Thus, after all the reſearches which could have been made, one is ſtill to ſeek with regard to the ſituation of Canada, at the firſt diſcovery of it towards the middle of the ſixteenth century.

The only point of their hiſtory that has come to us, cloathed with ſome ſort of probability, is the riſe of the war which M. de Champlain found was very much kindled between the Iroquois on one ſide, and the Hurons, and Alonquins on the other. In this war he meddled, M. Charlevoix ſays, a great deal more than was agreeable to the French intereſt; and, that for his own part, he has not been able to find the epocha of it; yet he does not take it to be very ancient. But he gives his reader notice before hand, that he will not inſure the following hiſtorical account, though he ſays, at the ſame time, that he takes it from good authority.

The Algonquins inhabited all that extent of country, from Quebec, and perhaps even from Tadouſſac, as far as Nipiſſing lake, along the N. ſhore of the river St. Laurence, and up to the great river which empties itſelf into it above the iſland of Montreal. Hence it may be judged, that this nation was at that time pretty numerous; and it is certain that it has, for a long time, made a very great figure in that part of America, where the Hurons alone were in a condition of diſputing with them the pre-eminence over all

the reſt. With regard to hunting, they had no equals, and as for war, they had none ſuperior to them. The few which at preſent remain of them have not degenerated from the ancient valour of this nation; and their miſery has not yet made them loſe their reputation.

The Iroquois entered into a kind of league with them, very advantageous to both the one and the other; but which, in the way of thinking among the ſavages, with whom a great hunter and a great warrior go hand in hand, gave the Algonquins a real ſuperiority over the Iroquois. Theſe laſt, almoſt entirely taken up in the cultivation of their lands, had engaged themſelves to give a ſhare of their crops to the Alonquins, who, on their part, were to divide with them the fruits of their hunting, and to defend them againſt the attempts of any who ſhould endeavour to diſturb them. Theſe two nations lived thus for a pretty long time in a good underſtanding: but an ill-judged haughtineſs on the part of the one, and an animoſity which was not much minded, or attended to, on the part of the other, broke this union, and embroiled, irreconcilably both theſe people.

As winter is the ſeaſon for the grand hunting, and as at that time the ground being covered with ſnow does not furniſh employment for thoſe who cultivate it; the ſavages of both nations in alliance, joined together in order to winter in the woods. But the Iroquois left the trouble of hunting to the Algonquins, and contented themſelves with flaying the beaſts that were taken, drying their fleſh, and dreſſing their ſkins. This, at preſent, is the women's work every where: which probably then had not become a common cuſtom

among

among them. However, the Iroquois did not mind it. Though, from time to time, ſome of them were deſirous to make a trial at hunting, and the Algonquins were not againſt it; in which they ſhewed themſelves bad politicians. It happened, in a certain winter, that a ſmall body of both nations had ſtopped at a place, where they reckoned they ſhould have good game for hunting; and accordingly ſix young Algonquins joined with the like number of Iroquois, who were of the ſame age, were ſent out to begin the ſport.

They at firſt perceived ſome elks: upon which all immediately made ready to fall upon them. But the Algonquins would not let the Iroquois purſue them, and gave them to underſtand that they ſhould have enough to do to flay the beaſts they were going to kill. But unluckily for theſe young boaſters, three days paſſed without their being able to bring down a ſingle elk, though a great number of theſe animals preſented themſelves. They were greatly mortified at this poor ſucceſs, which apparently was a thing not diſpleaſing to the Iroquois, who preſſed to be permitted to go on the other ſide, where they flattered themſelves they ſhould be more fortunate. Their propoſal was received by the Algonquins, in the ſame manner as that was by the brethren of David, which that young ſhepherd made about going to fight with the giant Goliath. They told the Iroquois that they were very vain to pretend having more ſkill than what the Algonquins had: that their buſineſs was to till the ground; and that they ought to leave the office of hunting to thoſe whom it ſuited better.

The Iroquois, provoked with this anſwer, made no ſort of reply; but the night following they went away privily in order to hunt. The Algonquins, when they awaked, were ſurpriſed at not ſeeing their aſſociates the Iroquois; but their aſtoniſhment ſoon was changed into an extreme diſguſt: for on the evening of the ſame day, they ſaw the Iroquois return, loaded with the fleſh of elks which they had taken. No people in the world are more ſuſceptible of envy, and carry it further than the ſavages of this country do. The effect of that paſſion on the Algonquins immediately ſhewed itſelf; for ſcarcely were the Iroquois aſleep, before they had all their throats cut. Such a maſſacre could not long be concealed; and though the bodies were buried ſecretly, the nation to which they belonged were ſoon informed of it. They at firſt made their complaints with moderation; but at the ſame time they would have juſtice done on the murderers. But they were holden in too much contempt to have any ſuch thing granted them. And the Algonquins would not humble themſelves ſo far as to give them the leaſt ſatisfaction.

The Iroquois, in deſpair, took a firm reſolution of being avenged for the contempt which the Algonquins ſhewed for them, and which touched them more than the aſſaſſination of which they complained. They ſwore they would all die to a man, or have ſatisfaction: but as they found themſelves not yet in a condition to try their ſtrength with the Algonquins, whoſe very name kept in awe almoſt every other nation; they withdrew from them, and went to try their ſtrength againſt an enemy leſs to be dreaded, a war with whom they looked upon as a diverſion:

and as ſoon as they thought themſelves ſufficiently hardened and enured, they fell all of a ſudden upon the Algonquins, and began a war, the end of which the French, ſays Charlevoix, only ſaw, and which ſet all Canada in a flame. It has continued, on the part of the Iroquois, with a fierceneſs ſo much the more terrible, as it was the more premeditated, and had nothing of that precipitate fury which hinders from taking the proper meaſures, and which cools immediately. Beſides this, the ſavages never thought they were ſufficiently revenged, unleſs they had entirely deſtroyed their enemies: and this is truer with regard to the Iroquois than any other nation. It is commonly obſerved of them, that they come on like foxes, that they attack like lions, and that they fly off like poor birds. Thus they play generally a ſure game; and ſuch conduct has ſo well ſucceeded with them, that without the aſſiſtance of the French, ſays Charlevoix, there would not perhaps be at this day any mention of thoſe nations, who dared to oppoſe this torrent.

Thoſe moſt ill-uſed of all have been the Hurons, who found themſelves engaged in this war, either as allies or neighbours of the Algonquins, or becauſe they lay in the way of the one or the other. It has been ſurpriſing to ſee one of the moſt numerous and warlike nations on this continent, the moſt eſteemed of them all for their wiſdom and courage, to diſappear almoſt entirely in a very few years. It may be even ſaid, that no nation on this part of the continent but has paid dear on account of the Iroquois being forced to take arms: and, ſays Charlevoix, I know none in all Canada but the Abenaquis

among them, whom they did not dare to disturb; for when once they had tasted of war, they could not remain quiet, but like lions, whose insatiable thirst for blood is only increased by the bare view, and by never so small a participation of it. One would hardly believe what lengths they went in order to find out people with whom to fight. However, in consequence of their making war, as they have nevertheless received considerable checks from time to time, they have found themselves extremely diminished in their numbers, and without the slaves which they have taken in from all parts, the greatest number of whom they adopted or manumised, their situation would not now be more happy than that of the people they subdued.

What has happened in this respect to the Iroquois may be said with greater reason concerning all the other savages of this country; and it is not at all surprising if, as has been already observed, these nations should diminish every day very sensibly; for though their wars do not at first appear to be equally destructive of lives as ours are, yet they are much more so in proportion. The most numerous of these nations have never, perhaps, exceeded 60,000 souls, and from time to time skirmishes pass among them, in which a great deal of blood is shed. A surprise, or sudden attack, sometimes destroys a whole village; and often the fear of an invasion makes the people desert a whole canton; at which time these fugitives, in order to avoid dying by the sword of their enemies, or meeting with punishment, expose themselves to perish by famine and distress in the forests and mountains, because they seldom have the leisure or precaution to carry

carry provifions thither. This is what happened in the preceding age to a very great number of Hurons and Algonquins, of whom no body could give any account.

In the north part of Canada, and wherever the Algonquin language prevails, the dignity of Chief, or Cacique, is elective: but the whole ceremony of the election and inftallation confifts in feafting, accompanied with dancing and finging. The chief elect alfo never fails of pronouncing the panegyric of him whofe place he takes, and invoking his genius, or guardian fpirit. Among the Hurons, where this dignity is hereditary, the fucceffion is continued in the female line: fo that upon the death of the chief, it is not his fon who fucceeds him, but the fon of his fifter, or in default of him, his neareft relation in the female line. If a whole branch becomes extinct, the moft diftinguifhed matron of the tribe, or nation, pitches upon that fubject fhe likes beft, and accordingly declares him chief.

Maturity of years is neceffary for governing; and if the hereditary chief has not yet arrived at full age, they appoint him a regent, who has all the authority in his hands, but he exercifes it under the name of the minor. In general thefe chiefs do not receive great marks of deference; and if they are always obeyed, it proceeds from their knowing how to command. They indeed even pray, or rather propofe, that they may not be raifed to that power, and that they may never go beyond the bounds of that little authority which they enjoy. Thus, it is reafon that governs, and the government is fo much the more effectual, as obedience is the more free;

and as the people have no need to fear that it shall ever degenerate into tyranny.

Each family has likewise a right of choosing a counsellor and assistant to the chief, and this person is to take care of their interests, and without his advice the chief can undertake no enterprise. These counsellors are especially obliged to have an eye on the public treasury, and it is their particular business to appoint the destination of the several sums to be employed out of it. They are received into the office in a general council; but their allies have no notice given them of this, as they have of the election and installation of their chiefs. Among the Huron nations it is the women who nominate the counsellors, and frequently they choose persons of their own sex.

The body of counsellors, or assistants, is the first of all; the second is that of the ancients, i. e. all those who have arrived at the age of maturity: but Charlevoix says he does not know precisely what the age is. The last body is that of the warriors. It comprehends all such as are able to bear arms. At their head is frequently the chief of the nation, or of the village: but he must previously have distinguished himself by some brave action: if not, he is obliged to serve in the station of a subaltern, that is, a plain soldier: for there are no degrees in the military service of the savages.

A great party indeed may have several chiefs, because they give this title to all those who have already bore command; yet they are nevertheless subject to the commandant of the party, a sort of general, without any conduct or real authority, who can neither reward, nor punish;

whom

whom his ſoldiers may quit when they pleaſe, without his having any thing to ſay to them; and whom, nevertheleſs, they hardly ever contradict: ſo true is it, that among men who make reaſon their rule, and are guided by honour and a zeal for their country, independency does not deſtroy ſubordination; and that frequently a free and voluntary obedience is always that ſort which may be moſt ſurely relied on. Beſides, the qualities requiſite for a commander in war are, that that he ſhould be ſucceſsful, valiant, and diſintereſted. So that it is not ſurpriſing that obedience is readily paid to a man, in whom theſe characters are acknowledged to meet.

The women have the principal authority with the people of the Huron language, if we except the Iroquois canton of Onneyouth, among whom it is borne alternate by both ſexes. But if this be the right of the matter, the practice is ſeldom conformable to it. The men indeed do not ſpeak to the women but about what they would have them know, and very rarely that any matter of importance is communicated to them; though all be done in their name, and the chiefs are no more than their lieutenants. Yet the grandmother of the hereditary chief among the Hurons of the ſtreights not being able to obtain a miſſionary for her village, is a good proof that the real authority of the women amounts but to very little. Yet we are aſſured, that they are the firſt who deliberate on whatever is propoſed in the council, and that they afterwards give the reſult of their conſultations to the chiefs, who make report of it to the general council, which is compoſed of the ancients. But it is very likely that all this is done by way

of form, and under the restrictions already mentioned. The warriors consult also among themselves upon every thing within their province; but they can conclude nothing of any importance, nor about what concerns the interest of the nation or canton. Every thing must be canvassed and decreed in the council of the ancients who determine in the last resort.

It must be allowed, that the proceedings in these assemblies are carried on with such wisdom, mature deliberation, ability, and I will say, commonly with such probity, as would do honour to the Areopagus of Athens, and the senate of Rome in the best days of those two republics. For they conclude upon nothing with precipitation; and the principal passions which have so much changed the face of politics, even among christians, have not yet been able to prevail among these savages over the public good. The self-interested do not fail to set several springs in motion, and to employ a dexterity of management, of which one would hardly believe Barbarians to be capable, in order to attain their purposes. It is indeed true, that they have all, in a very high degree, the art of concealing their march: but commonly the glory of the nation and the motives of honour are the principal springs of all their enterprises. But what cannot be excused in them is, that most frequently they make it a point of honour to revenge themselves, and they set no bounds to their resentment: a fault which christianity alone can rectify, and which all our politeness and religion do not always correct.

Each tribe has its orator in its own canton; and hardly any but these have a right to speak in their

their public deliberations, and general aſſemblies. They always ſpeak well, and to the purpoſe. Beſides this natural eloquence, which none, who have tried them can queſtion, they have a perfect knowledge of the intereſts of thoſe who employ them: and ſuch a dexterity in ſetting their juſt rights in their full point of view, as nothing can exceed. On ſome occaſions the women have an orator who ſpeaks in their name, and as if he were the interpreter only. People, who may be ſaid to poſſeſs nothing, neither in public nor private, and have no ambition to extend their territories, would, one ſhould think, have few ſubjects for quarrelling with one another. But the mind of man, naturally reſtleſs, cannot remain without action; and it is a matter of ingenuity to procure ſomething to employ one's ſelf about. This is certain, that our ſavages are continually engaged about negotiations; and they have always ſome affair or other upon the carpet; namely, treaties to be concluded, or renewed, offers of ſervice, reciprocal civilities, and alliances to be managed, invitations to war, compliments on the death of a chief, or of any conſiderable perſon: all which is done with a dignity, attention, and I may venture to ſay, with a capacity worthy of the moſt important concerns: and theſe are ſometimes more ſo than they appear to be. For thoſe whom they commiſſion for this purpoſe have for the moſt part ſecret inſtructions; and the apparent motive of their deputation is frequently no more than a veil to conceal ſome other more ſerious matter.

Father Brebæuff, who lived a long while among the Hurons, gives an account of the following method of puniſhing aſſaſſins, com-

monly practiſed. They laid the dead body upon poles in the upper part of a cottage, and the murderer was obliged, for ſeveral ſucceſſive days, to be directly underneath, and ſo receive whatever dripped from the corps, not only upon himſelf, but even upon his victuals, which were ſet by him, unleſs this laſt diſagreeable circumſtance was prevented by making a conſiderable preſent to the friends of the defunct. But the miſſionary does not ſay, whether this was done by public authority, or by way of repriſal made uſe of by thoſe concerned, when they could have the aſſaſſin in their power.

However, the moſt uſual way among all the ſavages, to indemnify the relations for the loſs of a perſon who has been aſſaſſinated, is to put a priſoner of war in his room; upon which occaſion this captive is always adopted. He enjoys all the rights which belonged to the defunct; and he ſoon makes the perſon, whoſe place he occupies, to be forgoten. There are, nevertheleſs, ſome odious crimes which are directly puniſhed with death, at leaſt among ſome nations; of this kind is witchcraft.

Whoever is ſuſpected of it, is no where ſafe; and when they have got him into their hands, they make him even undergo a ſort of torture to oblige him to name his accomplices; after which he is condemned to the puniſhment of priſoners of war. But they previouſly aſk the conſent of his relations, who dare not refuſe it. Such as are the leaſt criminal are ſtrangled, before they are burnt. Almoſt in the ſame manner they treat thoſe who diſhonour their families; and commonly the family itſelf avenges the injury.

Among

Among the Hurons, who were much addicted to ſtealing, and performed it with a dexterity which our artful pick-pockets would account as an honour to them, it was allowed, upon diſcovery of the thief, not only to recover from him what he had taken, but even to carry off every thing in his hut; to ſtrip him, his wife, and children, naked, without their being able to make the leaſt reſiſtance. Beſides, in order avoid all manner of diſputes that might ariſe on this head, they agreed upon certain points, from which they never deviated. For inſtance, every thing found, were it but a moment from the time of its being loſt, belonged to that perſon who found it, provided that the firſt owner had not already claimed it. But how little fraud ſoever was obſerved on the part of the finder, they obliged him to reſtore it. And this ſometimes gave occaſion to altercations which were pretty difficult to determine.

In order to hinder the conſequences of a murder, the public takes upon itſelf to make ſatisfaction for the guilty; and to indemnify thoſe concerned. Would one think, that even this is of greater force to prevent theſe diſorders, than the moſt ſevere laws? Yet nothing is truer in fact: for as ſuch ſatisfactions coſt men very dear, whoſe ferocity ſurpaſſes all that can be ſaid of it, the guilty perſon is more ſenſible of the pain in which he ſees the nation upon his account, than he would be of his own; and the zeal for the honour of the nation reſtrains theſe barbarians a great deal more powerfully than the fear of death and puniſhment could do.

Beſides it is certain, that impunity has not always prevailed among them ſo much as it has done

done lately. And the firſt miſſionaries have found traces of the ancient rigour with which they knew well how to repreſs crimes. Theft in particular has always been looked upon as a ſtain which would diſgrace a family; and each had a right to waſh out the ſtain with the blood of the guilty perſon. Father Brebæuf ſaw one day a young Huron knock out his ſiſter's brains: he run up to ſtop him, when upon aſking what induced him to commit ſuch violence, 'the ſavage made anſwer, it is my ſiſter: ſhe has been guilty of theft, and I was willing to expiate by her death the affront which ſhe has done both to me and all our family.'

HURON LAKE, a large collection of inland waters, but ſo as to be in the courſe of the river St. Laurence, in Canada, in North America; namely, the lake Alempigon diſcharges itſelf into that called the Superior lake, this into the Huron, and this into that of Erie, or Conti; and this laſt into the lake of Frontenac, or Ontario. The Huron lake hath a communication by a ſmall ſtreight, or channel, with that of Michigan; and the lands contiguous to it are called the country of the Hurons, already deſcribed, where the French pretend to have ſettlements and alliances with the Indians there, who found out a way from this lake to the ſettlements on the Miſſiſſippi, a river which falls into the gulph of Mexico.

JAGO DEL ESTERO, San, the metropolis of Tucuman, a province of Paraguay, in South America. It is the ſee of a biſhop, is ſituated on the banks of the Dolce, which is here pretty large and navigable for veſſels of burthen, and affording a plenty and variety of fiſh. The town conſiſts only of 300 houſes, or 500 families, and is quite without walls, ditch, or other fence. The inhabitants are moſtly Maſtichos, and Mulattos, of a dark yellow complexion, lazy and ſickly, from the heat of the climate, and addicted more to pleaſure, than to any traffic or work. The town ſtands on a flat, but ſurrounded with foreſts which cauſe a ſtagnation of the air. It has hardly 300 men fit to bear arms, including all the inhabitants. The women are generally handſome, but moſt of them are troubled with ſwellings, or wens in the throat. The neighbouring country produces plenty of wheat, rice, barley, fruits of all ſorts, particularly figs and raiſins; the foreſts yield plenty of game, but are alſo infeſted with tygers, and other beaſts of prey, particularly guanacos of the ſize of a horſe, in whoſe maw is found the occidental bezoar.

Beſides the cathedral, is the Jeſuit's church, with two others belonging to monaſteries. The inquiſitor, or governor, of this province, who is a ſecular prieſt, reſides in this town, and nominates his ſubſtitutes for the other parts of the country. This St. Jago is ſituated about 160 leagues E. from Potoſi, in lat. 24. 40. S. and long. 64. 55. W.

Jago, St. in the biſhopric of the ſame name, and capital of all Chili, in South America. It

is ſituated in a beautiful plain of vaſt extent. The town is watered on the E. ſide by the little river Mapocho, which is ſwelled in ſummer by the melting of the ſnow in the Cordillera, and in winter by the exceſſive rains; yet it is for the moſt part fordable. Its water is always foul, which the inhabitants filtre through a kind of ſtone.

For preventing inundations they have built a wall and a dyke, by means of which the waters are at all times conveyed for watering their gardens, and cooling the ſtreets. Beſides theſe, they draw larger ſtreams for driving the mills in ſeveral parts of the city. The ſtreets are laid out according to the four cardinal points. They are exactly in a line, and neatly paved with ſmall ſtones.

The earthquakes, frequent here, have much endamaged the city; and among them thoſe particularly of 1647, and 1657: the former almoſt overturned the whole town, and left ſuch noxious vapours that all the inhabitants died except 3 or 400. Since that time ſome of the monaſteries have been enlarged beyond the ſtraight lines.

About the middle of the city is the Placa Real, or Royal Square, with eight avenues leading to it, and in the centre is a fountain with a braſs baſon. The W. ſide contains the cathedral and biſhop's palace; the N. ſide, the preſident's new palace, the royal court, the council-houſe, and priſon; the S. ſide is a row of porticos, or uniform arches, for the conveniency of merchants, with a gallery over theſe for ſeeing the bull-fights.

The

The houſes, as is uſual throughout Chili, have only a ground-floor built with unburnt bricks, and here they are handſomer than elſewhere, and the churches richer in gilding; but the whole architecture is in an ill taſte, except the Jeſuits church, which is a Latin croſs arched on a Doric order. All the churches have a ſmall area for proceſſions; moſt of them are built with bricks, but ſome are of free-ſtone; and others are alſo of pebbles from a ſmall rock, called St. Lucy's hill, E. of the city, from the top of which is a full view of the city and parts adjacent.

The governor has the titles of preſident and captain-general, on account of his two employments of the gown and ſword. He preſides in the royal court, which is compoſed of four judges, two fiſcals; one of whom has the charge of protecting the Indians, and of the affairs of the Croiſade; alſo a head ſerjeant of the court, with other officers. No appeal lies from a judgment on a writ of error, or review upon a royal deciſion, which only takes cognizance of matters of moment, unleſs it be the royal council of the Indies. Other matters are decided in the council-houſe, conſiſting of members like thoſe of Conception.

The eccleſiaſtical ſtate, as well the ſecular, has a dependence on Lima: but the biſhop's power here is very much circumſcribed, the laws not allowing him the diſpoſal of any cure: even the pope has not his turn here. Beſides the cathedral, here are three pariſh churches, but ſmall, and little reſorted to, as the Monks, and eſpecially the Jeſuits, pretend to a right of performing eccleſiaſtical functions, when they pleaſe.

Here

Here are eight monaſteries for men; all which communities are numerous.

At St. Jago is the tribunal of the inquiſition of Chili, where the commiſſary-general and his officers reſide. They apply themſelves to the finding out of ſorcerers and witches, true or falſe, and certain crimes, as polygamy, &c. But as for heretics, none fall into their hands, they ſtudy ſo little here. The name of licentiate, or doctor. the Dominicans and Jeſuits can confer, by a privilege obtained from the pope, though no univerſity be eſtabliſhed as St. Jago.

JAGO DE LEON, SANT, a town of Venezuela, a province of Terra Firma, in South America. It is ſituated about 18 miles from the ſea-coaſt to the S. To it are two ways from the ſea; the one ſhort and eaſy; but may be eaſily guarded by a few people, being about the middle pent in by inacceſſible mountains and groves, ſo that it is hardly 25 feet broad: the other road is through craggy mountains and precipices, which the Indians generally uſe. After paſſing thoſe mountains is a plain in which the town is built. In 1599, the Engliſh took this town, after making themſelves maſters of the Caraccas.

JAGO DE GUATIMALA, ST. one of the principal towns of New Spain in South America. The old city was utterly deſtroyed by a hurricane and earthquake in 1541, when it is ſaid, 120,000 Spaniards (according to their uſual over-rating) loſt their lives. It was built at the bottom of a volcano, with two tops, from one of which iſſued fire, and from the other water. The preſent city ſtands in a fine valley on a river about three leagues from the volcano. It is the reſidence of the preſidents, the ſeats of the

royal

royal courts, and of a rich bishop suffragan to Mexico. It has an university, and is the centre of commerce in all those parts. It contains about 8000 familes: and the citizens carry on a considerable trade through all the provinces of Mexico, and even into Peru, by the ports of La Trinidad and Realejo. Its trade with Spain is from Golfo Dolce. The principal commodities in which they deal are hides, indigo, anatta, sylvester, cochineal, cocoa, &c. And indeed no city can stand more commodiously for an extensive trade, and be safer from pirates and privateers, lying 8 leagues from the South Sea, and about 40 from the gulph of Mexico: yet still it is liable to frequent earthquakes, as well as to eruptions from a neighbouring volcano, which burns most fiercely during the rainy season, and throws out huge stones and pieces of rocks. This mountain is seen a great way off at sea, it being, according to Gage, 9 miles high. The cathedral and parish churches here are extremely rich; and here are also 2 fine monasteries, besides a good hospital. The valley in which the city stands is about 2 miles and ½ broad, opening a little beyond the old town into a wide champaign towards the sea. Though it be surrounded with mountains, yet there are good roads over them.

The government of the adjacent country, and of the provinces of Honduras, Soconusco, Vera Paz, Nicaragu, Costa Rica, and Chiapa, is subordinate to the chancery here, which consists of a president, who has as great power as the viceroys of Peru and Mexico, also of six judges, the king's attorney, and two chief justices. They have all handsome salaries, which they very much increase by trading and bribes. The university here

here founded, in 1624, by Philip IV. joins to the Dominican convent, a ſtately pile, with a yearly revenue computed to be at leaſt 30,000 ducats; and its treaſury would make it 100,000. The nunnery of the Conception conſiſts of 1000 women, including ſervants and ſcholars; and they receive none but ſuch as bring with them from 500 to 1000 ducats. Here, ſays Mr. Gage, idolatry, fornication, and uncleanneſs, are as public as in any part of the Indies. Lat. 14. 10. S. Long. 92. 18. W.

JAGO DE NEXAPA, ST. a town of Guaxaca, one of the provinces in the audience of Mexico, in North America. It has the addition of Nexapa from the valley in which it is ſituated, on the ſide of a river, which falls into the Alvarado, 18 miles S. of Ildeſonſo. It has a convent of Dominicans much enriched by preſents of votaries, who come far and near to ſee an image of the Virgin Mary, and its pretended miracles.

JAGO DE LOS VALLES, ST. a town of Panuco, a province of New Spain, in North America. It is ſituated five leagues S. W. of Panuco city, on the river of the ſame name. Here the Spaniards have a garriſon, and in its neighbourhood are ſalt-works.

JAGO DE CUBA, ST. the capital, though not the moſt conſiderable town of the iſland of Cuba. The addition made to it by the Spaniards is in order to diſtinguiſh it from many other towns in America, as well as Europe. It is ſituated at the bottom of a ſpacious bay, on the S. E. ſide of the iſland, about two leagues from the ſea. The entrance into this bay is narrow for ſeveral miles; but within it are little iſlands forming a moſt commodious harbour, and

ſhelter

ſhelter from ſtorms. It was built by Velaſquez, the firſt conqueror, who made it the ſeat of his bloody government. The city is ſtill the ſee of a biſhop, with a cathedral, where the canons are reſidentiary but the mitred head reſides only at the Havannah. It had once a good trade: but this is alſo removed to that city; ſo that St. Jago has dwindled almoſt to nothing; though it has juriſdiction over one half of the iſland. After the Engliſh had left the iſland, about 400 men were continually employed for ſome time in repairing its fortifications. Within three leagues of it, at Covery, is a rich copper mine. Lat. 20. 15. N. Long. 76. 40. W.

JAGO DE LA VEGA, ST. commonly called Spaniſh town, the capital of the iſland of Jamaica, in America. It is ſituated ſeven miles N. of Port Paſſage, and the bay of Port Royal. Formerly it was the reſidence of the governor, and when the general aſſembly and courts of juſtice were holden. But theſe have been lately removed to Kingſton, which is now reckoned the capital. Lat. 18. 26. N. Long. 76. 32. W.

JAMAICA, one of the principal towns on Long iſland, or Naſſau iſland, belonging to Queen's county, in New York, in North America. It is ſituated on the W. ſide, and has a church in it.

JAMAICA, one of the greater Antilles, in the Weſt Indies, and ſituated in the Atlantic ocean. This iſland being diſcovered by Columbus in the year 1494, in his ſecond voyage from Spain to this part of the world, he changed the name of Jamaica to that of St. Jago, which it retained while it was in the hands of the Spaniards, and this was 150 years: but after they were diſpoſ-

ſeſſed

ſeſſed of it, in 1656, by the Engliſh, during Cromwell's uſurpation, and with a fleet primarily deſtined for the reduction of Hiſpaniola, under the command of Penn and Venables, it yielded without much oppoſition, and recovered its old appellation: afterwards the Spaniards ceded the iſland to the Britiſh court.

This is the largeſt of all the Engliſh iſland-colonies, and even of any of the greater Antilles, except Cuba and Hiſpaniola. It extends itſelf between lat. 17 and 18. 27 N. and between long. 76 and 79 W. ſo that it is about 140 miles in length from Point Negril on the W. to Point Morant on the E. and 60 in breadth where broadeſt; namely, from Gallina Point on the N. to Portland Pitch on the S. but it being of an oval form, it grows narrower towards each end. The acres it contains are computed by ſome at 4, by others at 5,000,000; of which, ſome ſay, one half is planted, and others not 200,000 acres.

It is divided by a ridge of mountains which runs through the whole iſland from E. to W. containing the ſprings of innumerable fine rivers, ſtored with fiſh of various kinds; and many of them navigable by canoes, in which ſugars are carried from the plantations to the ſea-ſide, and ſhipped in ſcooners and ſloops for Port Royal and Kingſton, there to be loaded for England. In ſeveral diſtricts they go by ſeveral names, being crowned with trees of almoſt 100 various kinds; particularly cedars, lignum vitæ, mahogany, &c. ever verdant, forming groves, and cool retreats. The tops of ſome of the mountains are higher than others; on each ſide of the ridge are others much lower, which, with the woods on their

their brows, and the little plantations on their ſides, form at ſea a very agreeable proſpect. Theſe mountains conſiſt either of rock, or ſtiff clay. The valleys too are always verdant, being embelliſhed with plantations curiouſly laid out, and producing the richeſt plants in the univerſe. Several of its rivers diſappear, or alter their courſe, after a ſtorm, and loſe their names; and ſome of them run for many miles under ground; and then emerge again. In ſome parts of the iſland indeed, where it ſeldom rains, the water is brackiſh and unwholeſome. The number of rivers in this iſland, Sir Hans Sloane reckons to be near 100. Theſe may more properly be called torrents; for they come precipitately down the mountains, running but a few miles before they fall into the ſea, and carrying with them in their courſe large ſtones, pieces of rock, and timber, generally much clay, or earth, which fouls the water; but this, after ſettling ſome days in jars, proves good. Though the Spaniards called one of theſe rivers Rio de Cobre, yet upon trial of the ſand, and other ſediments, no metal was found in them. One frequently ſees cataracts in the rivers among the mountains, 50 or 60 feet high. Spring water remote from the ſea, is preferred to that of rivers or ponds. Freſh water is very ſcarce in dry years in the ſavannas diſtant from rivers, ſo that many of their cattlet die by being driven a great way for water. The well-water near the ſea, as particularly a Port Royal is brackiſh, and occaſions fluxes and other diſeaſes to ſuch as drink it. Some ſprings in this iſland, as well as rivers, petrify their channels, and ſtop their own courſe by a cement uniting the ſand and gravel at the bottom.

The

The moſt remarkable river of this kind is at Abraham's plantation on the N. ſide of the iſland. Near Port Morant, in the E. part of the iſland, is a hot bath in a wood, the water of which has been uſed with great ſucceſs, by drinking as well as bathing in it for the cure of the gripes, the common diſeaſe of the country. In a level ground, under the hills in Cabbage-tree bottom, about two miles from the ſea, riſe a great many ſalt ſprings, which uniting, form what is called the Salt river. Here ſalt is made in the ponds, into which the ſea-water comes, where the moiſture being exhaled by the heat of the ſun, leaves the ſalt in great plenty, particularly at the ponds about Old Harbour, &c. It is not perfectly white, nor granulated; but is in large lumps, with a caſt of red in it. Here alſo are many lakes, one of which, called Rio Hoa, receives a great deal of water by a river with no viſible out-let to it.

The climate of Jamaica is more temperate, and the weather more various than in the Caribbee iſlands: and there is no country between the tropics where the heat is leſs troubleſome, the air being continually cooled by breezes from the E. frequent rains, and nocturnal dews. The E. and W. parts of the iſland are not ſo agreeable, on account of the thick foreſts there, as the S. and N. parts, which are not only more open, but much leſs ſubject to ſtorms of wind and rain. The air in the mountainous parts is cooler, though it rains frequently in January; yet May, and October, or November, are thoſe diſtinguiſhed by the name of the winter months, on account of the rain and thunder, more violent at ſome times than others: and ſometimes the

rains

rains laſt for a fortnight together, without any intermiſſion, laying the level grounds ſeveral inches under water, and rendering the roads almoſt impaſſible. All the year round, the mornings are exceſſively hot, till about eight o'clock, when the eaſterly breezes begin to blow. Theſe are called the Doctor, the people, while they laſt, being able to ſtir about their buſineſs, and the negroes to work in the fields. Theſe gales gently approach the ſhore, the ſea before them coming on as ſmooth as can be imagined. In half an hour after the breeze has reached the ſhore, it fans pretty briſkly, and gradually increaſes till about 12, when it is generally ſtrongeſt, and laſts till 2 or 3, when it begins to die away till about 5, when it is quite ſpent, and returns no more till next morning. About 8 in the evening begins a land-breeze, which blows 4 leagues into the ſea, and continues increaſing till 12 at night; after which it decreaſes till 4 in the morning, when no more of it is to be felt till next night. The ſea-breeze is more violent at ſome time than others; and particularly at the change, or full moon, when it gains very much on the land-winds. And in December, January, and February, when the N. winds reign, they blow over the ridge of mountains with violence, and hinder the ſea-breeze, which blows ſtronger and longer near the ſea, as at Port Royal, or Paſſage Fort, than within land, as at Spaniſh town: as on the contrary, the land wind blows harder at the town, than it does at Paſſage Fort, or Port Royal. As the trade-wind between the tropics comes not directly from the E. but varies from N. E. to S. E. according to the place and poſition of the ſun: ſo

the ſea-breeze here has the like variation, not coming always from the ſame point. On the contrary, the land-breezes come always from the ridge of mountains, and from the ſame point of them, on the N. and S. ſides. Sometimes the ſea-breeze blows in the winter-months 14 days and nights together; and then no clouds gather, but dews fall. But if a N. wind blow, which it ſometimes does full as long in the winter-months, then no dews fall, no clouds gather. In the valleys among the mountains neither of theſe breezes have any great influence; but the N. winds often blow down trees. The land-wind blowing at night every way at once, and the ſea-breeze in the day time, no ſhip can come into port, except in the day; nor none go out, but ſoon after day-break. The N. winds come in, when the ſun is neareſt the tropic of Capricorn; and conſequently moſt to the S. This is a very cold unhealthy wind, and is moſt violent in the night, when it has the additional force of the land-wind. It checks the growth of the ſugar-canes, and all vegetables on the N. ſide; but it is hindered by the ridge of mountains from venting much of its fury on the S. where it is ſeldom accompanied with rain. The S. winds bring the moſt laſting rains; but none from the land are laſting on the S. ſide. Storms uſed to be very rare here, till within theſe 70 or 80 years, that terrible hurricanes and earthquakes have extremely incommoded veſſels on the coaſt. The nights here are ſometimes pretty cool, the ſun being ſo far under the horizon, that ſcarce any reflected rays enlighten the atmoſphere, which cauſes an increaſe of the cold. Every night here are piercing dews, which are reckoned very un-

unwholesome, especially to new-comers, who are too apt to expose themselves: but in the plains, or sandy places near the sea, there are few, if any, fogs. The rains are violent, and the drops very large. The tides are scarce discernible, their increase or decrease depending mostly on the winds, and not according to the age of the moon. The days and nights here are almost of an equal length all the year round; the longest day of all being a little above 13 hours, and the night proportionably. The twilight is not above $\frac{3}{4}$ of an hour.

In Jamaica are two seasons for planting grain, and these are the wet seasons, there being no other distinction of these, except the wet and dry: nor are they regular, but vary in many parts of the island. In the N. side the seasons are pretty regular; but they have lately failed very much in the plantations on the S. side.

The months of July, August, and September, are called hurricane months, in which scarcely a year but some such storm happens in a greater or less degree. The strong winds from the N. bring storms of very large hail-stones. It lightens almost every night, but without much thunder; which, when it does happen, it roars very terribly, and often does a deal of damage. Earthquakes here are but too common, as well as in Hispaniola, and commit dreadful devastations in this island; particularly those of 1688 and 1692; as did a fire not long after, that burnt down almost the whole remaining town at the point, called Port Royal; which has never since been rebuilt: and most destructive hurricanes, one in 1712, and another, accompanied with an earthquake, in 1722. The valleys in Jamaica are very level

and ſmooth, without rocks or ſtones, or ſcarcely any riſing; and the mountains very ſteep, and ſome of them impaſſable, being ſurrounded on both ſides by deep channels cauſed by the violent rains.

This iſland is ſo far from being all over cultivated, that it has as much lying waſte as would produce about three times what it does at preſent. One third of the iſland is uninhabited. There are plantations round the iſland; but none at any great diſtance from the ſea, and even one half of the ground in theſe is over-run with wood. The ſoil in ſome places is ſo fertile, that one acre has been known to yield ſeveral hogſheads of ſugar: yet here and there are ſavannahs, or large plains, where the Indians uſed to plant their maize, and where the Spaniards afterwards bred their cattle, graſs growing there in ſuch plenty, that the inhabitants have been forced to burn it: ſo that now they are quite bare and barren. In all other parts, however, the ſoil is good and fruitful, eſpecially in the northern parts, where the mould is blackiſh, and in many places mixed with potters-earth: but in others, eſpecially towards the S. E. the ſoil is reddiſh and ſandy. Jamaica, as well as moſt of the ſugar-iſlands, has a kind of white chalky ſoil, called marle, lying two or three feet deep, which is of ſo hot a quality, and that ſo increaſed by manure, that their crops in all dry ſeaſons are ſure to fail. In a wet year the leaves grow rank, and never come to maturity.

The natural productions of Jamaica are ſugar, rum, ginger, cotton, coffee, indigo, pimento, called allſpice, or Jamaica pepper, cocoa, ſeveral kinds of woods, ſome medicinal drugs, and tobacco;

bacco; but this laſt of ſo ordinary a ſort, that it is only cultivated to ſerve the negroes, who are paſſionately fond of it. Jamaica bears no ſort of European grain: yet it produces maize, or Indian corn, Guinea corn, peaſe of various kinds, but none like ours, except ſome Engliſh peaſe in gardens, with cabbages, and a variety of roots. Fruits grow here in great abundance, as the Seville and China orange, the common and ſweet lemon, ſhaddocks, citrons, pomegranates, mamies, ſourſops, papas, pine-apples, cuſtard-apples, ſtar-apples, prickly-pears, Alicada-pears, pompions, melons, guavas, and ſeveral ſorts of berries to be found every where in the woods. But our common apple-trees, it is obſerved, will not grow here, or at leaſt only in very few places, as may be ſaid of other fruits which proſper more in colder climates.

Some of its productions deſerve a more particular deſcription, among theſe pimento and ſugar, with ſome others as follows, claim the principal regard.

The tree which bears pimento riſes to the height of above 30 feet. It is ſtraight, of a moderate thickneſs, and covered with a gray bark, extremely ſmooth and ſhining. It ſhoots out a vaſt many branches on all ſides, that bear a plentiful foliage very large and beautiful, of a ſhining green, in all reſpects reſembling the leaf of the bay-tree. At the very extremity of the twigs are formed bunches of flowers; each ſtalk bearing a flower which bends back; and within which curvature may be diſcerned ſome ſtamina of a pale green colour. To theſe ſucceeds a bunch of ſmall crowned berries, larger, when ripe, than thoſe of the juniper: at that ſeaſon

they change from their former green, and become black, ſmooth, and ſhining. They are taken unripe from the tree, and dried in the ſun: in this caſe, they aſſume a brown colour, and have a mixed flavour of many ſorts of ſpice, whence it is called alliſpice: but it is milder than the other ſpices, and is reckoned inferior to none of them for the ſervice it does to cold, watery, and languid ſtomachs. The tree grows moſtly upon the mountains.

Beſides this, they have here the wild cinamon-tree, the bark of which is ſo ſerviceable in medicine; the manchenille, a moſt beautiful tree to the eye, with the faireſt apple in the world; and when cut down, a very fine ornamental wood for the joiners and cabinet-makers; but the apple and juice, in every part of the tree, contain one of the rankeſt poiſons. Here is the mahogany, which is in ſuch general uſe with us; the cabbage-tree, a tall plant famous for a ſubſtance looking and taſting like cabbage, which grows on the very top, and produces but one in a year; for the extreme hardneſs of its wood, which, when dry, is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any tool. The palma, from which is drawn a great deal of oil, much eſteemed by the negroes both in food and medicine: the white wood, which never breeds the worm in ſhips; the ſoap tree, whoſe berries anſwer all the purpoſes of waſhing; the mangrove and olive-bark, uſeful to tanners; the fuſtic and red-wood to the dyers, and lately the logwood. Their foreſts alſo ſupply the apothecary with guaicum, ſalſaparilla, china, caſſia, and tamarinds; they have aloes too; and do not want the cochineel plant, though they know nothing of the art of ma-

naging it; nor perhaps is the climate ſuitable to it. The indigo plant (the manufacture of which ſee under Carolina) was formerly much cultivated, and the cotton tree, which is ſtill ſo; and they ſend to Great Britain more of its wool than all the reſt of our iſlands together.

The grand ſtaple commodity of the Weſt Indies, and particularly of Jamaica, is ſugar. This commodity was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, honey ſeeming to have ſerved for moſt of the purpoſes for which ſugar is now uſed; though it was made in China in very early times, from which country we had the firſt knowledge of it. But the Portugueſe were the firſt who cultivated it in America, and brought it into requeſt as one of the materials of a very univerſal luxury in Europe. It is not certain whether the cane from which this ſubſtance is extracted be a native of America, or brought thither by the Portugueſe from India, and the coaſt of Africa. But, however, in the beginning they made the moſt, as they ſtill do, the beſt of ſugars which come to the market in this part of the world. The ſugar-cane grows to the height of between ſix and eight feet, full of joints, about four or five inches aſunder: the colour of the body of the cane is yellowiſh, and the top, where it ſhoots into leaves, of a vivid green: the coat is pretty hard; and within it contains a ſpongy ſubſtance full of a juice, the moſt lively, elegant, and leaſt cloying ſweet of any in nature: and which ſucked raw has proved extremely nutritive and wholeſome.

The canes are cultivated thus. In the month of Auguſt, that is in the rainy ſeaſon of the year here, after the ground is cleared and well

hoed, they lay a piece of ſix or ſeven joints of the cane, flat in a channel made for it, above half a foot deep: this they cover with the earth; and ſo plant the whole field in lines regularly diſpoſed, and at proper diſtances. In a ſhort time a young cane ſhoots out from every joint of the ſtock which was interred, and gows in 10 or 12 days to be a pretty tall and vigorous plant: but it is not till after 16 months, or thereabouts, that the canes are fit to anſwer the purpoſes of the planter, though they may remain a few months after without any conſiderable prejudice to him. The longer they remain in the ground after they have come to maturity, the leſs juice indeed they yield; but this is ſomewhat compenſated by the ſuperior richneſs of the juice. In order that no time may be loſt, they generally divide their cane-grounds into three parts: one is of ſtanding canes, and to be cut that ſeaſon; the ſecond is of new planted canes; and the third is fallow, ready to receive a freſh ſupply. In ſome places they make ſecond and third cuttings from the ſame root. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle; and the refuſe of the cane after grinding, ſerves for firing: ſo that no part of this excellent plant is without its uſe.

The canes are cut with a billet, and carried in bundles to the mill, which is now generally a wind-mill. It turns three great cylinders, or rollers, plated with iron, ſet perpendicularly, and cogged ſo as to be all moved by the middle roller. Between theſe the canes are bruiſed to pieces, and the juice runs through a hole into a vat placed under the rollers in order to receive it: from

from thence it is carried through a pipe into a great reſervoir, in which, however, for fear of turning ſour, it is not ſuffered to reſt long; but is conveyed out of that by other pipes into the boiling houſe, where it is received by a large caldron. Here it remains till the ſcum, which conſtantly riſes to the top during the boiling, is all taken off: from this it is paſſed ſucceſſively into five or ſix more boilers, gradually diminiſhing in their ſize, and treated in the ſame manner. In the laſt of theſe, it becomes of a very thick clammy conſiſtence; but mere boiling is incapable of carrying it further. To advance the operation, they pour in a ſmall quantity of lime-water: the immediate effect of this alien mixture is to raiſe up the liquor into a very vehement fermentation; but to prevent it from running over, a bit of butter no larger than a nut is thrown in, upon which the fury of the fermentation immediately ſubſides: a veſſel of 2 or 300 gallons requires no greater force to quiet it. Now it is taken out and placed in a cooler, where it dries, granulates, and becomes fit to be put into the pots, which is the laſt part of the operation.

Theſe pots are of a conical, or ſugar-loaf, form, open at the point, which muſt be conſidered as their bottom; and here a ſtrainer is put acroſs. In theſe pots the ſugar purges itſelf of all remaining impurity. The molaſſes, or treacly part, diſentangles itſelf from the reſt, precipitates, and runs out of the aperture at the bottom. It is now in the condition of Muſcavado ſugar, a term borrowed from the Portugueſe of Braſil; and this is of a yellowiſh brown colour, with a ſparkling grain.

After the ſugar has remained in theſe pots two days and nights, it is removed to the curing-houſe, and ſet upon earthen pans about a foot from the ground, called dripes. Into theſe pans run the molaſſes, which is carried thence to the diſtil-houſe, or to a ciſtern, where it remains, till riſing to a good quantity, it is ſometimes boiled again; and a ſort of ſugar made of it, called paneels, worſe than Muſcavado, and ſhipped off in caſks for England. The planters ſuppoſing the ſugar to be perfectly cured in a month's time, the pots are then removed to the knocking-room, ſo called, becauſe the pots are there turned upſide down, and the ſugar knocked out of them, which will then appear of three different colours and qualities, the top brown, and of a frothy light ſubſtance for the depth of an inch or two; the bottom black, heavy, moiſt, and full of molaſſes, for about a foot: but the middle, which is generally three fourths of the whole, dry, white, and good. The top is packed up with the bottom: about half of the whole is boiled, and further refined with the paneels, and the middle is carried to the ſtore-houſe, as fit for market: yet the fineſt of this ſort will have a ſediment at the bottom, after it is in the hogſhead, which will be moiſter, fouler, and blacker, than the reſt, becauſe of the molaſſes remaining in it. This is the ſugar which is commonly imported into England, and is fit both for the grocer and ſugar-baker. A gallon of the juice of the canes, if ever ſo good, makes but one pound of Muſcavado, and one of molaſſes; and the reſt is ſkimmings and dregs.

But when they have a mind to refine the Muſcavado ſtill further, and leave no remains at all of

of the molaſſes, they cover the pots above-mentioned with a ſort of white clay, like that uſed for tobacco-pipes, dilated with water: this penetrates the ſugar, unites with the molaſſes, and with them runs off, leaving the ſugar of a whitiſh colour, but moſt ſo at top. This is called clayed ſugar. Sometimes the operation is repeated once or twice more; and the ſugar diminiſhing every time in quantity gains conſiderably in value: but ſtill it is called clayed ſugar. Further than this they do not go in the plantations, becauſe a heavy duty of 16 ſhillings per hundred is laid upon all ſugars refined there.

The difference betwixt clayed and refined ſugars is this: the former has no lime-water put into it, neither is boiled again; but only pots of Muſcavado clayed down; which clay, by its coldneſs, condenſes and forces the moiſture downwards: yet enough is left behind to make it fouler and groſſer than refined ſugar; which is Muſcavado boiled over again, and clarified with lime-water; then potted and ſtrained: and this ſugar will be drier, and of a more ſparkling white than the brighteſt of that which has been clayed.

The dregs of the juice, ſkimmings of the copper, and the drippings from the pots, being all carried to ciſterns and backs, where they ferment, are from thence conveyed by pipes to the diſtilling-houſe, where from the ſkimmings and molaſſes of the ſugar, rum is diſtilled in this manner. They mix four parts water, and one molaſſes in the ciſterns, where they work it up with ladles twice every 24 hours; and in about 10 days it is ſtale and ripe. Then they put it into the ſtills, and rectify it as the common ſpi-

rits are with us. Alſo from the ſcummings of the ſugar a meaner ſpirit is produced. It is commonly allowed 100 weight of molaſſes will yield 10 gallons of ſpirits for uſe. Rum finds its market in North America, where it is conſumed by the Britiſh inhabitants, or employed in the Indian trade; or diſtributed from thence to the fiſhery of Newfoundland, and the African commerce; beſides what comes to Great Britain and Ireland. However, a great quantity of molaſſes is taken off raw, and carried to New England to be diſtilled there.

It is computed that, when things are well managed, the rum and molaſſes pay the charges of the plantation; and that the ſugars are clear gain. In ſhort, Jamaica ſugars are ſaid to be the beſt in all our plantations, and made with the greateſt eaſe.

The whole produce of the iſland may be reduced to theſe general heads. 1. Sugars, of which they exported, in 1753, 20,315 hogſheads: ſome vaſtly large, even to a ton weight; which cannot be worth leſs in England than 427,725 pounds ſterling. Moſt of this goes to London and Briſtol; and ſome part of it to North America, in return for the beef, pork, cheeſe, corn, peaſe, ſtaves, plank, pitch, and tar, which they have from thence. 2. Rum, of which they export about 4000 puncheons. The rum of this iſland is eſteemed the beſt, and the moſt generally uſed in England. 3. Molaſſes, in which they make a great part of their returns for New England, where are vaſt diſtilleries. All theſe are the productions of their grand ſtaple, the ſugar-cane. 4. Cotton, of which they ſend out 2000 bags. The indigo, formerly much cul-

tivated, is now inconſiderable: but ſome coffee and cocoa are exported, the former of which is in no great eſteem; though it is ſaid to be little inferior to that of Mocha, provided it be kept for two or three years. With theſe they ſend home a conſiderable quantity of pimento, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, ſweetmeats, mahogany, and manchenille plank. But ſome of the moſt conſiderable articles of their trade are with the Spaniſh continent of New Spain, and Terra Firma; for in the former they cut large quantities of logwood; and both in the former and latter they drive a vaſt and profitable trade in negroes, and all kinds of the ſame European goods, which are carried thither from Old Spain by the Fleta.

Both the logwood, and this contraband trade have been the ſubjects of much contention, and the cauſe of a war between us and the Spaniards. The former article we avow, and we claim it as our right: though in the laſt treaty of peace, that point was far from being well ſettled. The latter we permit; becauſe we think, and that very juſtly, that if the Spaniards find themſelves aggrieved by any contraband trade, it lies upon them, and not upon us, to put a ſtop to it.

Formerly we cut logwood in the bay of Campeachy, on the northern ſide of the peninſula of Jucatan. But the Spaniards have driven our people entirely from thence, having built forts, and made ſettlements, in order to prevent them from returning. Expelled from Jucatan, the logwood-cutters ſettled upon the gulph of Honduras, and ſouthern ſide of the ſame peninſula, where they are in ſort eſtabliſhed, and have a fort to protect them. They are an odd kind of people,

people, compoſed moſtly of vagabonds and fugitives from all parts of North America, and their manner of life is ſuitable, pretty much in a lawleſs manner, though they elect one amongſt them whom they call their king; and to him they pay as much obedience as they think fit. The country they are in is low, and extremely marſhy; the air much infeſted with muſkitos, and the water very dangerous by reaſon of alligators. Yet a life of licentiouſneſs, plenty of brandy, large gains, and a want of thought, have perfectly reconciled them to the hardſhips of their employment, and the unwholeſomeneſs of the climate. They go always well armed, and are about 1500 men.

In the dry ſeaſon, when they cut the logwood, they advance a conſiderable way into the country, following it as it runs amongſt the other trees of the foreſt, like the vein of a mine in the earth. When the rains have overflowed the whole country, they have marks by which they know where the logwood is depoſited. It is a heavy wood, and ſinks in the water. It is, however, eaſily buoyed up, and one diver can lift very large beams. Theſe they convey, by means of the land-floods, into the river, to a place called the Barcaderas, or Port, where they meet the ſhips that come upon this trade.

In the year 1716, when the debate concerning this matter was revived, the lords of trade reported, that before the year 1676, we had a number of people ſettled, and carrying on this trade to the peninſula of Jucatan; that we always conſidered this as our right, and were ſupported in it by our kings: and that this right was confirmed, if it had wanted any confirmation, by a

clauſe

clauſe of uti poſſidetis, in the treaty of peace concluded with Spain and the court of London in 1676. And further, that the Spaniards themſelves have incidentally drawn a great advantage from it; ſince the pirates, who were formerly the moſt reſolved and effectual enemies they ever had, were the more eaſily reſtrained from their enterpriſes, by having their minds diverted to this employment. Upon the whole it appeared, that this trade employed near 6000 tons of ſhipping, found employment for a number of ſeamen proportionable; conſumed a good deal of our manufactures, and was of conſiderable uſe in fabricating many others; and that the whole value of the returns were not leſs than 60,000 pounds ſterling a year.

This trade of logwood, though under many difficulties and diſcouragements, ſtill continues, and is generally carried on by New England veſſels, who take what goods they want in Jamaica.

But there is ſtill a more profitable trade carried on between this iſland and the Spaniſh continent, eſpecially in war-time. This too has been the occaſion of much bickering between us and the court of Spain: and it will yet be more difficult for them to put a ſtop to this trade than to the former, whilſt the Spaniards themſelves are ſo eager for it, whilſt it is ſo profitable to the Britiſh merchant, and whilſt the Spaniſh officers, from the higheſt to the loweſt, ſhew ſo great a reſpect to preſents, properly made them. The trade is thus carried on. The ſhip from Jamaica having taken in negroes, and a proper aſſortment of goods there, proceeds in time of peace to a harbour, called the Grout, within Monkey-key, about

about four miles from Porto Bello. A perſon who underſtands Spaniſh is directly ſent a-ſhore to give the merchants of the town notice of the arrival of the veſſel. The ſame news is carried likewiſe with great ſpeed to Panama; from whence the merchants ſet out diſguiſed like peaſants, carrying their ſilver in jars covered with meal, in order to deceive the officers of the revenue. Here the ſhip remains, trading frequently for five or ſix weeks together. The Spaniards uſually come on board, leave their money, and take their negroes, and their goods packed up in parcels fit for one man to carry, after having been handſomely entertained on board, and receiving proviſions ſufficient for their journey homeward. If the whole cargo of the veſſel is not diſpoſed of here, they bear off eaſtward to the Brew, a harbour about five miles diſtant from Carthagena, where they ſoon find a vent for the reſt. No trade is more profitable than this, the payments being made in ready money, and the goods ſelling higher than they would at any other market. Not on this coaſt only, but every where upon the Spaniſh main this trade is carried on; nor is it by the Engliſh only, but by the French from Hiſpaniola, the Dutch from Curaſſoa, and even the Danes have ſome ſhare in it. When the Spaniſh guarda-coſtas ſeize upon one of theſe veſſels, they make no ſcruple of confiſcating the cargo, and of treating the crew in a manner little better than pirates.

This commerce in time of peace, and this, with the prizes which are made in time of war, pour into Jamaica an aſtoniſhing quantity of treaſure. Great fortunes are in a manner made inſtantly; the people of the iſland appearing to

live

live in ſuch a ſtate of luxury, as in all other places leads to beggary. Their equipages, cloaths, furniture, and tables, all bear the tokens of the greateſt wealth and profuſion imaginable: ſo that all the treaſure they thus receive, makes but a ſhort ſtay, as added to all the productions of the iſland, it is hardly more than ſufficient to anſwer the calls of their neceſſity and luxury upon Europe and North America, and their demand for ſlaves, of which this iſland is obliged to have an annual recruit for its own uſe, and that of the Spaniſh trade, of upwards of 6000 head, and which, one with another, ſtand them in 30 l. a piece, and often more.

Few colonies in America are ſo well ſtored with cattle as Jamaica. Their horſes, aſſes, and mules, are very cheap; the oxen and cows are large; and there would be much greater quantities of theſe, only that the Engliſh mind planting more than graſing; ſo that they are ſupplied with fleſh from the northern colonies, as well as the Leeward iſlands. Their ſheep are generally large and fat, and the fleſh good, but the wool is worth nothing. Here is abundance of goats, or cabrettos, rabbits, and hogs; and their pork is as good as that of Barbadoes: but here are no deer nor hares.

Their bays, roads, and rivers, abound with excellent fiſh of all kinds; but the tortoiſe is by much the moſt valuable, both for its ſhell and fiſh, the latter being accounted the moſt delicious, and withall the wholeſomeſt in the Indies, and eſteemed as one of the niceſt dainties at the tables of our nobility and merchants, to whom they are often ſent to England as preſents from this

this and the neighbouring iſlands. Several veſſels come in a year from the Caribbee iſlands to take them. They principally frequent the coaſts about 20 or 30 leagues to the left of Point Negril, near the Cayman iſlands, to which all the tortoiſes from the Caribbees to the bay of Mexico, repair every ſummer to lay and hatch their eggs. They float aſleep, in a calm day for a good while, on the ſurface of the water; the ſeamen row to them very gently, and take them either by ſtriking them with irons, or entangling their legs with a rope and running-net. When the tortoiſes come upon the coaſt above-mentioned to lay their eggs, they coot for 14 days together, and then lay in one night about 300 eggs, which have white and yolk, but no ſhells. Then they coot again, and lay in the ſand: and ſo thrice, till the male is reduced to a kind of jelly within, and is blind; and ſo carried home by the female.

The rivers and ponds here are infeſted with alligators. They live upon animal fleſh, which they hunt for greedily. They are from 10 to 20 feet long, their backs ſcaly and impenetrable, and it is hard to wound them any where, except in the belly, or eye. Though they have a ſwift and ſtrong motion in a ſtraight line; yet it is eaſy for men to avoid them, becauſe they turn with difficulty, and ſlowly. They lie on the banks of rivers, and wait for beaſts that come to drink there, which they ſeize and devour. They are ſhaped like a lizard, and have four feet, or fins, with which they ſwim or walk. Of the fat of theſe miſchievous animals, an excellent ointment is made for aches or pains. They have bags of muſk, ſtronger and more fragrant than that of the

the Eaſt Indies, by the ſcent of which a man may avoid them before he ſees them, and even cattle ſmell them, and run away. They breed like toads, laying their eggs in the ſand, where the ſun-beams hatch them. As ſoon as their young come out of the egg, which is of the ſize and magnitude of a turkey, they immediately take to the water. Thoſe at full growth have teeth like a maſtiff. This creature moſt writers confound with the crocodile, and indeed the Spaniards call them both by the term Cayman; yet the latter animal has longer legs, the knots on his back are thicker, higher, and firmer, and its fleſh has not that muſky ſcent which the alligator has; beſides, the crocodile carries his tail with the tip turning back like a bow, whereas the alligator drags his on the ground.

The mountains of this iſland breed numberleſs adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marſhes do the guana and galliwaſp, but they are not venemous. And of all the inſects here, none is ſo miſchievous as the ciron, or chegoe, which eats into the nervous and muſcular parts of the fleſh of the negroes. Theſe inſects, when got into any part of the body, breed in vaſt numbers, and ſhut themſelves up in a bag, which the negroes pick out with a pin, or point of a penknife, and deſtroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may remain. Here is alſo the manchinella, which reſembles a craw-fiſh, and is ſo common in the Caribbee iſlands.

Here are all ſorts of fowl, wild and tame; and more parrots than in any of the other iſlands; beſides parocets, ſnipes, Guinea-hens, pigeons, turkeys, geeſe, ducks, and poultry. The peli-

can,

can, is about the ſize of a gooſe, and lives on the ſmall fiſh it picks out of the ſea; its wings will extend ſeven or eight feet. It has a ſhort tail, a very hard bill, 14 inches long, and increaſing in breadth towards the end, where it bends like that of a parrot. Its neck is a foot and a half, with bay-coloured hair, inſtead of feathers on the back of it; and from about half way it has two membranous ventricles, in which it pouches its prey. The birds by ſome called frigates, are here termed men of war, whoſe fat is good for aches. The ſwallows depart in the winter months, and are ſucceeded by wild ducks and teal.

The fire-flies, a ſpecies of cantharides, ſo called, as contracting and expanding their light as they fly. They look green in the day time, but glow in the night, even ſome days after they are dead. By help of a few of them the ſmalleſt print may be read.

Here is a great variety of birds; but the moſt remarkable is the colibry, or humming-bird: is much ſmaller than a wren, and ſome no bigger than the large ſort of flies, the colours of the feathers in its neck and wings repreſenting thoſe of the rainbow; ſome have a bright red under their necks; the belly and under the wings a fine yellow, the thighs green, the feet and beak black like ebony, its eyes caſt a ſurpriſing luſtre, and the head is green: the plumage of the male is finer than that of the female, and on his head he has a crown of feathers. It make a louder noiſe, by the agitation of its wings, than ſome of the largeſt birds, and lives on dew, which it ſucks from the bloſſoms. Theſe creatures are ſeldom ſeen on the ground, but are moſtly about the

the cotton and orange trees, in which they build their curious little nests. The only way of taking them is by shooting with sand, which stuns them.

On the 7th of June 1692, one of the most violent earthquakes happened at Jamaica that perhaps was ever felt, by which Port Royal was almost entirely destroyed. The number of people who perished on this dreadful day was upwards of 30,000; and a general sickness happened after it, which cut off a great many more. Though Jamaica suffered most by this earthquake; yet it was felt much about the same time in most parts of the world. The French, thinking to make an easy conquest of Jamaica at this time, invaded it with 300 men; but were repulsed, and only 18 left to carry the news of their defeat. In June 1694, this island was again invaded by three French men of war, besides privateers, &c. in all 20 sail, and about 1500 soldiers, under monf. du Casse, the French governor of Hispaniola. But after committing the most inhuman barbarities, and doing a deal of mischief, they were driven off the island, with the loss of 700 of their men. And soon after, the Jamaicans, in conjunction with the Spaniards of St. Domingo, in an expedition against the French, ruined their fort and two of their settlements in that island, killed 350 of their men, and brought away 150 prisoners, besides 80 pieces of cannon, and a great deal of booty; with inconsiderable loss on their side. Wilmot, the English commodore in this expedition, was charged with avarice and treachery in starving the soldiers: so that had it not been for the bravery of the officers, the design would probably have

have miſcarried. The remainder of the Engliſh forces, who were at firſt 1200, under colonel Livingſton, being carried to Jamaica, moſt of them died ſoon after, as did the commodore in his return to England. About this time the aſſembly of Jamaica paſſed an act for giving their freedom to ſuch negroe-ſlaves as could prove they had done any remarkable ſervice againſt the French. In the year 1703, was an univerſal ſickneſs in Jamaica, which carried off abundance of people; and about the beginning of the following year the whole town of Port Royal was burnt to the ground in one afternoon. But, by the help of the men of war's boats, moſt of the merchants ſaved their books and money; and ſome of them conſiderable quantities of merchandize. The iſland now, however, was very healthy; and by the great numbers of rich French and Spaniſh prizes brought into it during the war at that time, it grew very rich.

Auguſt 28, 1712, aroſe a hurricane here, which laſted from eight at night till two in the morning, whereby 14 ſhips belonging to the iſland were loſt, together with others from London and Briſtol, and 400 of their crews drowned. The men of war, and other veſſels, at Port Royal and Kingſton, received much damage, many houſes and warehouſes were blown down, and very few eſcaped being ſhattered in pieces, abundance of goods ſpoiled by the rain, trees blown down, ſugar-works deſtroyed, or much damaged, the ſugar-canes generally blown away, and ſeveral perſons killed by the fall of houſes.

On the 28th of Auguſt, 1722, happened another hurricane in Jamaica, almoſt as ruinous as the earthquake of 1692. The inhabitants were

were put into a terrible conſternation the day before, by a prodigious ſwell of the ſea. The hurricane began, with a violent rain, next morning at 8, and held till 10 at night. Near half of the houſes at Kingſton were thrown down or ſhattered. The wharfs at Port Royal were all deſtroyed, and moſt of the ſugars, and other commodities waſhed away. Of 26 top-ſail veſſels, and 10 ſloops in the harbour, only 10 were to be ſeen after the hurricane, and of theſe only 5 or 6 repairable. Though the town wall of Port Royal was 9 feet above the ſurface of the water, and 7 feet thick, the ſea broke over it, carrying vaſt numbers of large ſtones along with it. In ſhort above half the town of Port Royal was deſtroyed, beſides the loſs of near 400 lives.

About two years before this, the rebellious negroes, who had reſtled ſo long in the mountains, raiſed a fortification in the blue mountains of very difficult acceſs. From thence they made frequent incurſions into the low-countries: and ſeveral parties having been ſent againſt them without ſucceſs, 200 Muſquito Indians belonging to the continent betwixt Truxillo and Honduras, who had ſubmitted to England, were brought over to ſuppreſs them, in which they performed very good ſervice.

Jamaica had been in arms 9 months in 1735 and 1736, in order to guard againſt the rebellious negroes; but it availed little towards clearing the country: and none would cultivate the lands, or ſettle near the place where they harboured, and ſome of the moſt fertile parts were deſerted.

In 1738, governor Trelawny, conſidering what damage and terror theſe rebels had occaſioned, and the miſcarriage of all paſt attempts

to reduce them by force, had recourſe to more gentle methods, and offered them a pardon on their complying with certain terms: upon which they all laid down their arms, and ſubmitted; and their captain obliged himſelf, in caſe the iſland was invaded, to aſſiſt the governor with all his forces. By other articles of their ſurrender, they were allowed a chief to govern them; but he was to act nothing without the conſent of the governor of the iſland: and ſeveral white men now live among them to obſerve their actions.

It was computed, that in the beginning of this century, Jamaica had 60,000 whites, and 120,000 negroes, to which flouriſhing ſtate of this iſland the reſort thither of thoſe pirates, called the buccaneers, at the firſt ſettlement of the Engliſh here, did not a little contribute, by the vaſt ſums of money they ſquandered away; and from this prodigious fortunes were raiſed, and the returns of treaſure to England were very great. The above-mentioned calculation is certainly too large. The Jamaicans, however, were undoubtedly very numerous, until reduced by earthquakes, epidemical diſeaſes, and hurricanes, which have been above related: the loſſes by which have not been ſince ſufficiently repaired. Now the white inhabitants ſcarcely exceed 20,000 ſouls, and the blacks are about 90,000; both much fewer than was formerly computed, and with a much greater diſproportion on the ſide of the whites. It appears at preſent that Jamaica is rather upon the decline. A country which contains at leaſt 4,000,000 of acres, has a fertile ſoil, extenſive ſea-coaſt, and many very fine harbours, at a time when the value of all its products at market is conſiderably riſen; for ſuch a coun-

country to have not above 3 or 400,000 acres properly cultivated: something must be very wrong in the management of its affairs. And what renders this still more evident is, that land is so extravagantly dear in many of the West India islands, as to sell for above an 100 l. an acre: a price which would undoubtedly never be paid, if convenient land could be procured, and proper encouragement were given in Jamaica.

The whole island is divided into 19 districts or parishes, which send each two members to the assembly, and allow a competent maintainance to a minister. The parishes are, St. Catherine's, Port-royal, Kingston, St. Dorothy's, Clarendon, Vere, St. Elizabeth's, Westmoreland, St. Ann's, St. Thomas in the east, St. Andrew's, St. John's, and St. Thomas in the Vale; which have each a parochial church: St. Catherine's, Clarendon and St. Anne's parishes, have also each a chapel of ease. But the parishes of Hanover, St. George, St. James, St. Mary's, and Portland, have neither church nor chapel.

In the year 1736, there were six forts in Jamaica; namely, Fort-Charles at Port-royal, the Rock-port at the entrance of Kingston-harbour, a fort at Port-Antonia, Fort-William, Fort-Morant, and the fort in Carlisle-bay. The forces of the island consisted then of 9 regiments of militia, horse and foot, containing 3,000 men, which are under the direction of officers appointed by the governor, and 8 independent companies in his majesty's pay, amounting to 800.

By the laws of the island, every man between 16 and 60 is obliged to inlist in their militia.

The governor and council are appointed by the king; and the repreſentatives of the people in that called the aſſembly, are choſen by the freeholders: theſe three bodies form the legiſlative power. The governor or commander in chief, is captain-general, admiral, and chancellor of the iſland; has power of granting commiſſions of all kinds, of ſummoning and diſſolving aſſemblies, of making counſellors, of pardoning all crimes except treaſon and murder, and even of granting a reprieve for theſe; of placing and diſplacing all officers who are not by patent: in a word, of acting with ſovereign authority under his majeſty, always taking the advice of his council. He has alſo a negative voice in paſſing all acts of the aſſembly. The government of this iſland, next to that of Ireland, is the beſt in the king's gift. The ſtanding ſalary is 2,500 l. currency a year; the aſſembly vote him as much more; which, with a conſiderable preſent generally made him on his firſt arrival, a very large ſum annually contributed by the Jews, and the other profits of his office, make the whole nearly equal to 10,000 l. a-year.

The council conſiſts of twelve perſons generally of the beſt eſtates and quality in the iſland, and appointed by letters of *mandamus* from his majeſty: but on the death or diſmiſſion of any, the governor nominates others to ſupply their places. Their buſineſs is to adviſe and aſſiſt the governor, and to be a check upon him if he exceeds his commiſſion. In the aſſembly, this council forms the upper houſe, and claims a negative voice like our houſe of lords. The members of the aſſembly do buſineſs in the ſame manner as our houſe of commons.

The

The planters in Jamaica allot their ſlaves a ſmall parcel of ground, and allow them Sundays to cultivate it. They generally plant it with maize, Guinea-corn, plantains, yams, cocoes, potatoes, &c. and by theſe moſt of them are ſupported. But ſome who are induſtrious among them raiſe a ſtock of fowls, which they carry to market on Sundays, and purchaſe ſalt-beef, fiſh, or pork with the money.

As the blacks are ſuperior in number to the whites, there is danger from their joining in rebellions, and would be more ſo if they were not taken from different nations of Africa, and natives of different places in Guinea, by which means their languages are ſo diſſimilar, that they cannot converſe freely: beſides, they bear ſo mortal a hatred to one another, that ſome of them would rather die by the hands of the Engliſh, than join with the other Africans in an attempt to regain their liberty. None of them are allowed to touch any arms, or go out of the bounds of their plantation without a ſpecial order: and nothing is ſo terrible to them as to ſee the whites perform their exerciſe. But the Creolian negroes are no ſtrangers to arms.

The work of the white ſervants here is much leſs than that of day-labourers in England. Some of theſe ſervants who behave well are encouraged; but ſuch as are lazy and diſhoneſt, are treated in the manner they deſerve.

The merchants and planters, &c. in Jamaica, live in as much pomp and pleaſure as any gentlemen in the world. They keep their coaches and ſix, with a large retinue of ſervants; and have always exceeded other colonies in magnificence and luxury.

The taxes in Jamaica are raiſed by way of impoſt on ſtrong liquors, foreign indigo, and other commodities, which amount to about 6,000 l. currency; and about 2,000l. more ariſes from his majeſty's quit-rents, fines, forfeitures, eſcheats, wine-licences and gun-powder: all which is, by an act of the aſſembly, granted to the crown for the ſupport of the government.

The principal trade of Jamaica is with Great Britain, and the Engliſh colonies on the continent of North America; a very advantageous commerce is indeed carried on with the Spaniſh main, but in a ſecret manner. The moſt ſaleable goods here are Oſnabrugs, check, and white linen both coarſe and fine, laces, cambrics, hats, ſhoes, ſtockings, broad-cloths, ſilks, platillos, all ſorts of iron ware, ſoap, candles, butter, cheeſe, ſalt beef, pork, herrings, dry'd cod-fiſh, biſcuit, beer, ale, cyder, &c. all which at leaſt bring 50 l. per cent. to the importer. The general trade is nearly the ſame with that of the iſland of Barbadoes; but that of Jamaica has in general the advantage, particularly in the exportation of bullion: ſo that in ſome years Jamaica has ſent no leſs than 300,000 pieces of eight to Great Britain.

Perhaps few places in the world have a greater plenty of ſilver than Jamaica; but the current coin here is entirely Spaniſh, there being no Engliſh pieces but in the cloſets of the curious. They uſe no copper, the loweſt piece being a bit or royal, which paſſes here for 7d. ½. but a ſingle halfpenny in Britain will go a great deal further. The piece of eight of Seville, Mexico, or pillar piece, as 'tis called, was by proclamation in Queen Anne's time only 6s. but it is now raiſed

to

to 3 d. more, in order to prevent its being carried out of the iſland: great quantities are, however, daily ſent to England.

The iſland is greatly peſtered with rats, to the unſpeakable damage of the ſugar-plantations, where they borough among the canes, and feed on the juice: ſo that ſeveral times in a year the planters are not only obliged to ſcatter poiſon among their canes, but at the ſame time allow the negroes a bottle of rum for every 50 they deſtroy.

This and all the Britiſh colonies of America, are under the inſpection of the biſhop of London; but learning is here at a low ebb, there being no public ſchool in the whole iſland. Reading, writing, and caſting accompts, is all the education generally deſired here; the planters, who are able, ſending their children for polite learning to Great Britain.

The common diſtempers in Jamaica are, high fevers, bloody fluxes, and belly-aches, or the dry-gripes: the fevers are generally very violent, carrying off the patient in a ſhort time. Few of the Engliſh miſs it at their firſt coming, unleſs they obſerve a due regimen and live temperately. The dry-gripes is ſhockingly ſevere, many by it loſing the uſe of their limbs for ever after, and during the fit crying out like a woman in travail. The common remedy for it are gentle purges and clyſters; and after the patients are ſomething recovered, the cold-bath is preſcribed.

The buildings of the Engliſh are generally of brick, and often pretty high, which renders them more liable to be demoliſhed by earthquakes and hurricanes; whereas the Spaniards uſed to build their houſes of timber, and ſeldom

above one ſtory high; fixing the main poſt deep in the ground. Their kitchens are always at a diſtance from their dwelling-houſes, there being in the latter neither chimneys nor fire-places. The houſes of conſiderable planters are alſo remote from their ſugar-works. The negroes live in long thatched huts, furniſhed with earthen pots and ſome calabaſhes, which ſerve them for pails, bowls, and diſhes.

Jamaica is of the laſt importance to the crown of Great Britain, not only for its trade, but its ſituation in the very centre of the Spaniſh acquiſitions in America; ſo that no veſſel can ſail to or from the continent, without coming in ſight of Jamaica; or in caſe of a war, falling into the hands of ſuch of our cruiſers as are ſtationed there. For every fleet from Carthagena puts into Hiſpaniola; from whence it cannot ſail for the Havannah, the general rendezvous of the Spaniſh flota, without paſſing near Jamaica. Round this iſland are many fine bays, very convenient for ſhipping, and ſome of them might be improved to excellent purpoſes; for a large fleet might lie in them with the greateſt ſafety, and watch the motions of any ſhips from the Havannah.

JAMES-ISLAND. See NORTHMAIN.

JAMES COUNTY, a diſtrict of Virginia, in North America. It lies to the eaſtward of Charles-county, and extends on both ſides the river of the ſame name. The number of acres it contains amount to 108,362, and is divided into 5 pariſhes; namely, Wallingford, Wilmington, James town, Merchants hundred, on the north ſide of the river, and Bruton on the ſouth-ſide.

JAMES TOWN, formerly the capital of James county, is ſituated on a peninſula upon the north ſide

ſide of James or Ponhatan river, 42 miles above its mouth. The buildings in this place are neither many nor contiguous, their number at preſent not exceeding 70, and thoſe principally inhabited by ſea-faring people; the ſeat of the government, and the courts of juſtice, being removed to Williamsburg, 8 miles to the north of it, which is a dry and healthy ſituation; whereas the water near James town being brackiſh, produced ſlow and intermitting fevers. It lies in lat. 37. 36. N. long. 76. 51. W.

JAMES'-BAY, the eaſtern part, and the moſt ſouthern diviſion of Hudſon's-bay in the northern countries of America. The diſtance from cape Henrietta Maria in lat. 55. 15. where James' bay begins, to the bottom of the bay, is about 100 leagues, and of much the ſame breadth all the way, being between 50 and 60 leagues over. In James'-bay are Bear-iſland, Viner's-iſland, Charlton-iſland, Cape-hope-iſland, &c.

JANEISO, a province of Braſil in South America, bounded by Spirito Sancto on the north, by the Atlantic on the eaſt and ſouth, and by the mountains dividing it from Guaira in Spaniſh America on the weſt. This province is ſo called from a river of the ſame name, which riſing in the weſtern mountains, and running eaſtward, falls into the Atlantic ocean in lat. 23. S. This is the moſt valuable province belonging to the Portugueſe, who export annually from hence into Europe, gold and precious ſtones to a very conſiderable amount. It lies between the tropic of Capricorn, and lat. 22. S. and between long. 44. and 49. W.

JEKYL-SUND, a ſmall bay of St. Simon's iſland, in the mouth of the river Alatamha in

Georgia, one of the British colonies in North America. Here 10 or 12 ships of 40 guns may safely ride, and for its defence a strong castle and battery were erected by general Oglethorpe.

JERSEY, NEW, one of the provinces of North America belonging to Great Britain. It was at its first settlement in 1682, divided into two provinces, namely, East and West Jersey: but in Queen Ann's reign they were united into one, her majesty appointing a governor accordingly. It is bounded on the north by a line drawn from Delaware river to Hudson's river, in lat. 41. 4 N. by the Atlantic ocean on the E. and S. and by Delaware bay and river, which part it from Pensylvania on the W. It lies between lat. 39 and 41 N. and between long. 74. and 76 W. being about 120 miles in length from N. to S. and 100 in breadth from E to W. It now forms, as has been hinted above, one royal government, the king appointing a governor and council, and the freemen chusing the members of the assembly or representative body of the commons. Sometimes the governor of New York is also governor of New Jersey, but by distinct commissions.

The climate of New Jersey in general, is somewhat warmer than that of New England or New York, by reason of its more southerly situation. The produce of both the Jerseys is all sorts of grain, with horses, black cattle, hogs, furs, skins, and pipe-staves. They export bread, corn, flour, beef, pork, and fish, also hemp, some butter, hams, beer, flax-seed, bar-iron and lumber, to the West Indies; for which they receive rum, sugar, &c. in return. They also export furs, skins, tobacco, pitch, tar, and other productions to Old England; which they barter for

for furniture, cloathing, &c. The New Jerſey ſhips alſo often take whales, the oyl and bone of which are ſent to England. As the towns generally lie up in the country, the trade is chiefly over land to New York. There are from 100 to 150, or 200 families in one place, great part of which are Dutch, who are peaceable ſubjects, and protected by the Engliſh government. The number of inhabitants is computed at 60,000 of all ages and ſexes, of which about 3,000 are men fit to bear arms; and about 200 Indians. They have yet no town of any conſequence, Perth-Amboy the capital, having not above 200 houſes.

JERSEY, Eaſt, the largeſt and moſt populous of the two, extends eaſt and north for 100 miles all along theſe coaſts, and Hudſon's river from little Egg-harbour, to that part of Hudſon's river which is in lat. 41. N. and is divided on the S. and W. from Weſt Jerſey, by a line of partition paſſing from Egg-harbour to Creſwick-river, Stony-brook, and the ſouth branch of Raritan river. Its breadth is very unequal, being in ſome places much indented by Weſt Jerſey. 'Tis, however, the moſt valuable part of the country, and is ſubdivided into Monmouth county on the ſouth of Raritan-river, Middleſex and Eſſex counties on the north of it; and Bergen county on Hudſon's-river.

JERSEY, Weſt, has not ſo many towns, and is not ſo well planted as Eaſt Jerſey: yet by reaſon of its navigable creeks lying at a convenient diſtance, and ſome of them running up a good way inland, this province is rendered very commodious for trade. Dr. Cox, with propriety, cauſed ſeven counties to be laid out; but his ſucceſſors dropped the project, and now no part of this province has the name of a county, ex-

cept that called Cape-May county, being a tract betwixt Cape-May, its moſt eaſterly point of land at the mouth of Delaware-bay and little Egg-harbour, dividing the two Jerſeys. On this neck of land are ſeveral ſtraggling houſes, the principal is Cox's-hall. Moſt of the inhabitants are fiſhermen, there being a whalery on both ſhores of the mouth of Delaware-bay, which, together with the river of the ſame name, waters all the S. E. the S. and S. W. parts of Weſt Jerſey; and the plantations ſome of which are ſo very cloſe that they are called a town, lie all along on that bay and river; and moſt of them on creeks. Maurice-river, betwixt Cape-May and Cohanzy-river, is the largeſt in all the country: and the latter, though only a ſmall river, is deep and navigable for ſmall craft. Ten or twelve miles up the river is a town of the ſame name, containing about 80 families.

The increaſe of the trade and produce of both Jerſeys, may be judged by that of its number of people, eſpecially negroes, who are ten times as many as they were 60 years ago.

Ilheos, or Rio de Ilheos, a captainric of Braſil in South America. It has its name from the number of iſlands which lie before its principal bay, upon one of which ſtands its capital of the ſame name. It is bounded on the N. by the river Serenhaim, which divides it from Bahaia province, or the bay of All Saints; on the S. by the Rio Grande, ſeparating it from Porto Seguro; on the E. by the ocean; and on the W. by the Vaymores and Quirigujes, two barbarous and unconquered nations of Indians.

It hath ſome other rivers that croſs it from W. to

to E. particularly Rio das Contas, dos Ilheos, de Duna, and Juſſia. The principal places in it are Ilheos, the capital, Noſtra Signora da Vitoria, St. Anna and St. George, beſides ſome hamlets and ſugar-plantations.

Among the barbarous nations, there is one in particular driven hither from their native country, who are whiter and taller than the reſt; but of the wandering kind, and lie on the ground in foreſts or fields: they never go in troops, but lurk behind trees, and ſhoot all they meet with arrows, being inveterate againſt the Portugueſe.

Not far from theſe live the Aymures, probably the Vaymores, the fierceſt and moſt barbarous of all, hunting men as others do wild beaſts, and eating all they kill or take. They are even ſaid to devour their own children.

Theſe for ſome years did the Portugueſe plantations great injury, and almoſt deſtroyed the town of Ilheos; but they were at length overcome, and forced to retire to a conſiderable diſtance from the Portugueſe frontiers.

ILHEOS, the capital of the above province. It ſtands about 30 leagues N. E. of Porto Seguro, and about the ſame diſtance S. W. of the bay of All Saints, in lat. 15. 40. S. long. 34. 28. W. It conſiſts of about 200 Portugueſe families, and is watered by the river Ilheos. Some authors repreſent it as inconſiderable; the jeſuits, however have a college in it, and teach the Portugueſe youth and ſuch of the ſavages as will attend their lectures.

The other inhabitants are chiefly employed in cultivating the plantations, and tranſporting the produce by ſea to Pernambuco, and other provinces.

About 7 leagues to the W. of the capital, is a lake of freſh water about 3 leagues in length, near as many in breadth, and 15 fathom deep, out of which iſſues a river, and runs to the eaſtward till it falls into the ocean; but its mouth is ſo narrow, that the boats have hardly room to paſs through it into the lake. The fiſh are very good and in great plenty, particularly the Manatis, ſome of which weigh from 20 to 30 pounds. It likewiſe breeds that large kind which the Spaniards call tuberones: but it alſo produces crocodiles or alligators, which prey on the reſt, and even do conſiderable miſchief to the cattle on the land.

ILLINHI, a mountain of the Andes in South America, W. of Catopaxa, with a bifid ſummit, which is conſtantly covered with ſnow.

ILLINOIS, a nation of Canada, dwelling near the lake and river of the ſame name. The latter iſſues from Lake Dauphine, and after a courſe of above 200 leagues falls into the great river Miſſiſſippi.

Its name, or Albini, as the natives call it, ſignifies a man grown up or complete, a title with which they compliment their nation above all their neighbours. They live in villages at a great diſtance from each other on the marſhy plains, and on both ſides of the river, beyond which are ſome large woods and ſloping hills, covered with a moſt delightful verdure, at leaſt for nine months in the year; whilſt its current, moſtly S. W. is ſo ſmooth and agreeable, that veſſels of a conſiderable burthen may ſail up and down it with eaſe and ſafety, during a courſe of at leaſt 120 leagues before it falls into the Miſſiſſippi.

The lands on each ſide afford ſuch plenty of paſture, that they are covered with large and ſmall

ſmall cattle, as well as deer and other beaſts of the chace. The river itſelf is covered with water-fowl; as ſwans, geeſe, cranes, ducks, &c. all which thrive ſo well by the great quantities of wild oats that grow on the banks and the neighbouring plains, that many of them are choaked up with their fat.

The villages are large, and the huts neatly built, of an oblong figure, covered with mats ſo well interwoven, that they are proof againſt wind, rain, and ſnow. Each hut hath five or ſix hearths or fire-places, and each of theſe ſerve one or two families: all which live very quietly together. The largeſt of thoſe villages contains between 4 or 500 houſes; the wood work of theſe huts is indeed ordinary, but the matting of the inſide remarkably neat, and under them are cellars or repoſitories for their Indian corn, which after harveſt they commonly lay up in ſuch places under ground; this, with ſome roots and the fleſh they kill in the woods, being their principal food.

The French jeſuit miſſionaries have converted them to Chriſtianity; before which æra, there were not, according to Charlevoix, ſavages who had fewer good qualities and more bad ones, through the whole extent of Canada. But ſuch is the influence of Chriſtianity on the minds and characters of the people, that it has produced a change in both. They have always been tractable and docile, but at the ſame time lazy, treacherous, fickle, deceitful, thieviſh, and brutal; deſtitute of honour, ſelf-intereſted, addicted to gluttony and the moſt monſtrous incontinence, a crime almoſt unknown to the other Indians of Canada; and therefore it is no wonder that they were alſo very much deſpiſed.

At preſent they ſeem to be kind and affable to ſuch as are maſters of their country; they will flatter and careſs thoſe they are in friendſhip with, but are very artful, quick-ſighted and revengeful. They are tall, ſtout, and well-ſhaped, but tawny, being extremely nimble and expert at moſt bodily exerciſes; great lovers of hunting, and allow themſelves more wives than one. But to prevent family quarrels, they commonly marry ſiſters or near relations; and are ſo jealous of them that, upon the leaſt ſuſpicion of infidelity, they cut and mangle their faces and bodies in a moſt cruel manner.

This nation does not only extend itſelf all along the river of this name, but likewiſe a good way ſouthward on each ſide the river Miſſiſſippi. The Illinois and Miameſe dwell together above the place called la Fourche or the Fork, being the confluence of that river with the Piſticoni, which is much larger and deeper, falling from the country of the Muſcoatins. About a league below their junction, and on the right ſide, is a round high rock, on whoſe ſummit ſtands a village called Fort Miamis; and about a league below it on the other ſide is another of the ſame nature, called ſimply the Rock, but at a diſtance looks much like a fortreſs. It is ſtill ſurrounded with paliſadoes, which ſhews it to have been a kind of retrenchment of the Illinois or Miameſe.

At the foot of this rock is an iſland in the middle of the river, ſurrounded with a multitude of others remarkably fertile and delightful. On the largeſt is a village where one of their chiefs reſides.

None

None of these nations have either courage or conduct in their skirmishes, for their fiercest battles deserve no better name: they are only an impetuous onset, accompanied with dreadful shouts; and whichever gives way are totally defeated, and seek their safety in a precipitate flight.

Their chief address lies in ambuscades, in which they have the patience to lie concealed eight or nine days, for the sake of killing an enemy or passenger, or taking him prisoner.

When any of their expeditions against another nation has succeeded, they so order their march, as not to come to their village till night; and stopping short of it send an account to their chief of their success, plunder, and number of their prisoners: after which they enter the place with shouts, dances, and songs after their fashion. But if they have been repulsed or defeated, they must enter in the day-time, and instead of those tokens of joy, fill the air with mournful outcries, and give an account of their loss: after which they retire to their huts, ashamed and disconsolate, and there meet with a suitable reception.

ILLINOIS LAKE, a large collection of waters lying between lat. 41. and 46. N. and between long. 89. and 94. W. It communicates, by means of a narrow channel, with Huron-lake.

IMPERIAL, a bishopric or district of Chili in South America. This is the most southerly province belonging to the Spaniards in South America, and is now called Conception. It extends from the river Gallego in lat. 46. 20. S. to lat. 35. S. See CONCEPTION.

The climate of this province nearly resembles that of Spain. The capital is of the same name, and

and ſtands in one of the moſt agreeable ſituations in the whole country, on a pleaſant river, anciently called Cauten, and now Imperial. The whole diſtrict round the city is very fertile, producing corn, and all ſorts of fruit and pulſe.

The country is partly hills, and partly valleys: the former are of a gentle and eaſy aſcent, with good paſture, and ſhelter for cattle. The ground does not require much watering, as being fertilized with frequent and plentiful dews.

This was an epiſcopal ſee, and at its firſt eſtabliſhment promiſed to be a large and populous city, on account of the excellency of its ſoil and ſituation: but having been deſtroyed by the Indians, it declined greatly, and now belongs to Conception, from which it is 130 miles.

The river Imperial is large, runs a great way up into the country, and its banks are well inted by Indians.

INDIANE, the name of a ſmall harbour in the iſland of Cape Breton.

INDIANS, the name by which the aborigines of America are generally called. Theſe people are ſcattered through the extent of the two prodigious continents, and divided into an infinite number of nations and tribes; differ very little from each other in their manners and cuſtoms, and all form a very ſtriking picture of the moſt diſtant antiquity.

Whoever conſiders the Indians of this day, not only ſtudies the manners of a remote preſent nation, but in ſome meaſure the antiquities of all nations; from which no mean lights may be thrown upon many parts of the ancient authors, both ſacred and profane. Lafitau's learned treatiſe on this head deſerves to be more read.

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TheIndians, or people of America, are tall and ſtraight in their limbs, beyond the proportion of moſt nations. Their bodies are ſtrong; but of ſuch a ſpecies of vigour, as is rather adapted to endure much hardſhip, than to continue long at any ſervile work: it is the ſtrength of a beaſt of prey, rather than that of a beaſt of burthen. Their bodies and heads are flattiſh, the effect of art. Their features are regular, but their countenances fierce; their hair long, black, lank, and as ſtrong as that of a horſe: no beards. The colour of their skin a reddiſh brown, admired among them, and improved by the conſtant uſe of bear's fat and paint.

When the Europeans firſt came into America, they found the people quite naked, except thoſe parts which it is common for the moſt uncivilized nations to conceal: ſince that time they have generally a coarſe blanket to cover them, which they buy from us. The whole faſhion of their lives is of a piece, hardy, poor, and ſqualid; and their education from their infancy is ſolely directed to fit their bodies for this mode of life, and to form their minds to endure the afflicſtion of the greateſt evils.

Their only occupations are hunting and war; agriculture is left to the women: merchandiſe they contemn. When their hunting ſeaſon is paſt, which they go through with much patience, and in which they exert great ingenuity, and their proviſions laid up, they paſs the reſt of their time in an entire indolence. They ſleep half the day in their huts; they loiter and jeſt among their friends, and they obſerve no bounds or decency in their eating and drinking. Before our diſcovery of America, the Indians were without ſpi-

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rituous liquors; but now the defire of acquiring thefe is what gives a fpur to their repofe. This is the principal end which they purfue in their treaties with us; and from this they fuffer inexpreffible calamities: for having once begun to drink, they can preferve no meafure; but continue a fucceffion of drunkennefs as long as their means of procuring liquor laft. In this condition they lie expofed on the ground to all the inclemency of the feafons, which waftes them by a train of the moft fatal diforders. They perifh in rivers and marfhes, they tumble into the fire, they quarrel, and very often murder each other: and in fhort, excefs of drinking, with us highly criminal, and which is not generally fo very pernicious in its effects as among this uncivilized people, who have not art enough to guard againft the confequences of their vices, is a public calamity. The few among them who live free from this evil, enjoy the reward of their temperance in a robuft and healthy old age. The diforders which a complicated luxury has introduced and fupported in Europe, are ftrangers here.

The character of the Indians is ftriking: they are grave even to fadnefs, upon any ferious occafion; obfervant of thofe in company, refpectful to the old, of a temper cool and deliberate, by which they are never in hafte to fpeak before they have thought well on the matter, and are fure the perfon who fpoke before them has finifhed all he had to fay; they have therefore the greateft contempt for the vivacity of the Europeans, who interrupt each other, and frequently fpeak all together.

Nothing is more edifying than their behaviour in their public councils and affemblies: every man

man there is heard in his turn, according as his years, wiſdom, or ſervices to his country, have ranked him. Not a word, not a whiſper, not a murmur is heard from the reſt, whilſt he ſpeaks: no indecent condemnation, no ill-timed applauſe. The younger ſort attend for their inſtruction. Here they learn the hiſtory of their nation; here they are inflamed with the ſongs of thoſe who celebrate the warlike actions of their anceſtors; and here they are taught what are the intereſts of their country, and how to purſue them.

There are no people amongſt whom the laws of hoſpitality are more ſacred, or executed with more generoſity and good will. Their houſes, their proviſions, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a gueſt. To thoſe of their own nation they are likewiſe very humane and beneficent: has any one of them ſucceeded ill in his hunting; has his harveſt failed; or is his houſe burnt; his misfortune has no other effect than that it gives him an opportunity of experiencing the benevolence and regard of his fellow-citizens, who for that purpoſe have nearly all things in common. But to the enemies of his country, or to thoſe who have privately offended, the Indian is implacable; he conceals his ſentiments, he appears reconciled, till by ſome treachery or ſurprize he has an opportunity of executing an horrible revenge. No length of time is ſufficient to allay his reſentment; no diſtance of place great enough to protect the object: he croſſes the ſteepeſt mountains, he pierces the moſt impracticable foreſts, and traverſes the moſt hideous bogs and deſerts for ſeveral hundred of miles, bearing the inclemency of the ſeaſons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hun-

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ger and thirſt with patience and cheerfulneſs, in hopes of ſurpriſing his enemy, on whom he exerciſes the moſt ſhocking barbarities, even to the eating of his fleſh. To ſuch extremes do the Indians puſh their friendſhip or their enmity; and ſuch indeed in general is the character of all ſtrong and uncultivated minds.

Notwithſtanding this ferocity, no people have their anger, or at leaſt the ſhew of their anger, more under their command. From their infancy they are formed with care to endure ſcoffs, taunts, blows, and every ſort of inſult patiently, or at leaſt with a compoſed countenance: this is one of the principal objects of their education. They eſteem nothing ſo unworthy a man of ſenſe and conſtancy, as a peeviſh temper, and a proneneſs to a ſudden and raſh anger: and this ſo far has an effect, that quarrels happen as rarely among them, when they are not intoxicated with liquor, as does the chief occaſion of all quarrels, hot and abuſive language. But human nature is ſuch, that as virtues may with proper management be engrafted upon almoſt every kind of vicious paſſion, ſo vices naturally grow out of the beſt diſpoſitions, and are the conſequence of thoſe regulations that produce and ſtrengthen them. This is the reaſon that when the paſſions of the Indians are rouzed, being ſhut up as it were, and converging into a narrow point, they become more furious; they are dark, ſullen, treacherous, and unappeaſable.

The Indians have ſcarcely any temples among them; though we hear indeed of ſome, and thoſe extremely magnificent among the ancient Mexicans and Peruvians: but both theſe were civilized

lized nations. Such as we know at present in any part of America, are no wise comparable to them: some appear to have very little idea of God, others entertain better notions; they hold the existence of a supreme Being, eternal and incorruptible, who has power over all. Satisfied with owning this, which is traditionary among them, they give him no sort of worship. There are indeed nations in America, who seem to pay some religious homage to the sun and moon; and most of them have a notion of some invisible beings, who continually intermeddle in their affairs, discoursing much of demons, nymphs, fairies, and the like beings. They have ceremonies also that seem to shew that they had once a more regular form of religious worship; for they make a sort of oblation of their first fruits, and observe certain ceremonies at the full moon; and have in their festivals many things that very probably came from a religious origin, though they perform them as things handed down to them from their ancestors, without knowing or enquiring about the reason. Though without religion, they abound in superstitions; as it is common for those to do, whose subsistence depends like theirs upon fortune. Being great observers of omens and dreams, and pryers into futurity with great eagerness, they abound in divines, augurs, and magicians, whom they rely much upon in all matters that concern them, whether of health, war, or hunting.

Their physic, which may rather be called magic, is entirely in the hands of the priests. The sick are naturally prone to superstition; and human help in such cases is generally found so weak, that it is no wonder that in all countries

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and ages, people have amuſed themſelves, in that diſmal circumſtance of human nature, with the hope of ſupernatural aſſiſtance.

Their phyſicians generally treat them, in whatever diſorder, after the ſame manner; that is, they firſt incloſe them in a narrow cabbin, in the midſt of which is a ſtone red hot, upon which they throw water till the patient is well ſoaked with the warm ſtream and his own ſweat; then they hurry him from this bagnio, and plunge him ſuddenly into the next river. This is repeated as often as they judge neceſſary; and by this method extraordinary cures are ſometimes performed: but it alſo frequently happens, that this rude method kills the patient in their very operation, eſpecially in the new diſorders brought among them from Europe: and it is partly owing to this manner of proceeding, that the ſmallpox has proved ſo much more fatal to them than to us. It muſt not be denied, that they have the uſe of ſome ſpecifics of wonderful efficacy; the power of which they, however, attribute to the magical ceremonies with which they are conſtantly adminiſtered.

Liberty in its fulleſt extent is the darling paſſion of the Indians: to this they ſacrifice every thing. This is what makes a life of uncertainty and want ſupportable to them; and their education is directed in ſuch a manner, as to cheriſh this diſpoſition to the utmoſt. They are indulged in all manner of liberty: they are never upon any account chaſtiſed with blows; they are rarely ever chided. Reaſon, they ſay, will guide their children, when they come to the uſe of it, and before that time their faults cannot be very great; but blows might abate the free and martial

tial ſpirit which makes the glory of their people, and might render the ſenſe of honour duller, by the habit of a ſlaviſh motive to action. When they are grown up, they experience nothing like command, dependence, or ſubordination: even ſtrong perſuaſion is induſtriouſly forborn by thoſe who have influence among them, as what may look too much like command, and appear a ſort of violence offered to their wills.

On the ſame principle they know no puniſhment but death. They lay no fines, becauſe they have no way of exacting them from free men; and the death which they ſometimes inflict, is rather a conſequence of a ſort of war declared againſt a public enemy, than an act of judicial power executed upon a citizen or ſubject. This free diſpoſition is general; and though ſome tribes are found in America with a head whom we call a king, his power is rather perſuaſive than coercive; and he is reverenced as a father, more than feared as a monarch; he has no guards, no priſons, no officers of juſtice. The other forms, which may be conſidered as a ſort of ariſtocracies, have no more power: this latter is the more common in North America. In ſome tribes there are a kind of nobility, who, when they come to years of diſcretion, are entitled to a place and vote in the councils of their nation; the reſt are excluded.

But among the Five Nations, or the Iroquois, the moſt celebrated commonwealth of North America, and in ſome other nations, there is no other qualification abſolutely neceſſary for their head men, but age, with experience and ability in their affairs. There is generally, however, in every tribe ſome particular ſtocks which they

reſpect

ſpect, and who are conſidered in ſome ſort as their chiefs, unleſs they ſhew themſelves unworthy of that rank: as among the tribes themſelves there are ſome, who, on account of their number or bravery, have a pre-eminence over the reſt; which, as it is not exacted with pride and inſolence, nor maintained by tyranny on one hand, ſo it is never diſputed on the other, when it is due.

Their great council is compoſed of theſe heads of tribes and families, with ſuch whoſe capacity has elevated them to the ſame degree of conſideration. They meet in a houſe, which they have in each of their towns for that purpoſe, upon every ſolemn occaſion, to receive ambaſſadors, to deliver them an anſwer, to ſing their traditionary war-ſongs, or to commemorate their dead. Theſe councils are public. Here they propoſe all ſuch matters as concern the ſtate, which have previouſly been digeſted in their ſecret councils, at which none but the head men aſſiſt. Here it is that their orators are employed, and diſplay thoſe talents which diſtinguiſh them for eloquence and knowledge of public buſineſs: in both which ſome of them are admirable. None elſe ſpeak in their public councils: theſe are their ambaſſadors, and theſe are alſo the commiſſioners who are appointed to treat of peace or alliance with other nations. The principal skill of theſe orators conſiſts in giving an artful turn to affairs, and in expreſſing their thoughts in a bold figurative manner, much ſtronger than we could bear in this part of the world, and with geſtures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expreſſive.

When any buſineſs of conſequence is tranſacted, they appoint a feaſt on the occaſion, of which, almoſt the whole nation partakes. There are leſſer feaſts upon matters of leſs general concern, to which none are invited but they who are engaged in that particular buſineſs. At theſe feaſts it is againſt all rule to leave any thing; ſo if they cannot conſume all, what remains is thrown into the fire; for they look upon this element as ſacred, and in all probability theſe feaſts were antiently ſacrifices. Before the entertainment is ready, the principal perſon begins a ſong, the ſubject of which is, the fabulous or real hiſtory of their nation; the remarkable events which have happened, and whatever matters may make for their honour or inſtruction. The others ſing in their turn. They have dances too, with which they accompany their ſongs, chiefly of a martial kind: and no ſolemnities or public buſineſs is carried on without ſuch ſongs and dances. Every thing is tranſacted among them with much ceremony; which, in a barbarous people, is neceſſary: for nothing elſe could hinder all their affairs from going into confuſion: beſides, that the ceremonies contribute to fix all tranſactions the better in their memory. In order to help this, they have bits of ſmall ſhells, or beads of different colours, which have all a different meaning, according to their colour or arrangement. At the end of every matter which they diſcourſe upon, when they treat with a foreign ſtate, they deliver one of theſe belts. If they ſhould omit this ceremony, what they ſay paſſes for nothing. Theſe belts are carefully treaſured up in each town, and they ſerve

as the public records of the nation; and to these they occasionally have recourse, when any contests happen between them and their neighbours. Of late, as the materials of which these belts are made have become scarce, they often give some skins in the place of the wampum: for so they call these beads in their language; and they receive in return presents of a more valuable nature; for neither will they look upon what our commissioners say to be of any weight, unless some present accompanies each proposal.

The same council of their elders, which regulates whatever regards the external policy of the state, has the charge likewise of its internal peace and order. Their suits are few, and quickly decided, having neither property nor art enough to render them perplexed or tedious. Criminal matters are bronght before the same jurisdiction, when they are so flagrant as to become a national concern. In ordinary cases, the crime is either revenged or compromised by the parties concerned. If a murder is committed, the family which has lost a relation, prepares to retaliate on the offender. They often kill the murderer; and when this happens, the kindred of the last person slain look upon themselves to be as much injured, and think themselves as much justified in taking vengeance, as if the violence had not begun among themselves: but in general, matters are determined in a more amicable manner. The offender absents himself, his friends send a compliment of condolence to those of the party murdered; presents are offered, which are rarely refused; the head of the family appears, who, in a formal

mal ſpeech delivers the preſents, which conſiſt often of above 60 articles, every one of which is given to cancel ſome part of the offence, and to aſſuage the grief of the ſuffering party. With the firſt he ſays, "By this I remove the hatchet from the wound, and make it fall out of the hands of him who is prepared to revenge the injury." With the ſecond, "I dry up the blood of that wound." And ſo on, in apt figures, taking away one by one, all the ill conſequences of the murder. As uſual, the whole ends in mutual feaſting, ſongs, and dances. If the murder is committed by one of the ſame family, or cabbin, that cabbin has within itſelf the full right of judgment without appeal, either to puniſh the guilty with death, or to pardon him; or to force him to give ſome recompenſe to the wife or children of the ſlain. All this time the ſupreme authority of the nation looks on unconcerned, and never rouſes its ſtrength, nor exerts the fulneſs of a power more revered than felt, but upon ſome ſignal occaſion; and then the power ſeems equal to it. Every one haſtens to execute the orders of their ſenate; and there never was any inſtance of diſloyalty or rebellion known among this people. Governed as they are, not by laws, but by manners, example, education, and the conſtant practice of their ceremonies, inſpire them with the moſt tender affection for their country, and the moſt religious regard for their conſtitution and the cuſtoms of their anceſtors.

The want of laws, and of an uniform, ſtrong, coercive power, is not perceived in a narrow ſociety, where every man has his eye upon his neighbour, and where the whole bent of every

thing they do is to ſtrengthen thoſe natural ties by which ſociety is principally cemented. Family love, rare among us, is a national virtue with them, of which all partake. Friendſhips there are among them which may vie with thoſe of fabulous antiquity; and where ſuch friendſhips are ſeen to grow, the families concerned congratulate themſelves as upon an acquiſition which promiſes to them a mutual ſtrength; and to their nation the greateſt honour and advantage.

The loſs of any one of their people, whether by a natural death, or by war, is lamented by the whole town he belongs to. Theſe towns being ſmall, have no buſine's to employ them for the greateſt part of the year, after the hunting ſeaſon is over, except the affairs of war or ſtate. In ſuch circumſtances no buſineſs is taken in hand, however important; nor any rejoicing permitted, however intereſting the occaſion, till all the pious ceremonies due to the dead are performed. Theſe are always done with the greateſt ſolemnity. The dead body is waſhed, anointed, and painted, ſo as in ſome meaſure to abate the horrors of death: then the women lament the loſs with the moſt bitter cries, and the moſt hideous howlings, intermixed with ſongs, which celebrate the great actions of the deceaſed, and thoſe of his anceſtors. The men mourn in a leſs extravagant manner. The whole village attends the body to the grave, which is interred, being dreſſed in the moſt ſumptuous ornaments. With the body of the deceaſed are placed his bow and arrows, with what he valued moſt in his life, and proviſions for the long journey which he

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is to take, for they univerſally hold the immortality of the ſoul, though their idea of it is groſs. Feaſting attends this, as it does every ſolemnity. After the funeral, thoſe who are nearly allied to the deceaſed, conceal themſelves in their tents for a conſiderable time, in order to indulge their grief. The compliments of condolence are never omitted, nor are preſents wanting upon this occaſion. After ſome time they re-viſit the grave; they renew their ſorrows: they new cloath the remains of the body, and act over again the ſolemnities of the firſt funeral.

But of all the inſtances of regard to their deceaſed friends, none is ſo ſtriking as what they call the feaſt of the dead, or the feaſt of ſouls. The day for this ceremony is appointed in the council of the chiefs, who give orders for every thing, which may enable them to celebrate it with pomp and magnificence. The riches of the nation is exhauſted on this occaſion, and all their ingenuity diſplay'd. The neighbouring people are invited to partake of the feaſt, and to be witneſſes of the ſolemnity. At this time, all who have died ſince the laſt ſolemn feaſt of that kind, are taken out of the graves. Thoſe who have been interred at the greateſt diſtance from the villages, are diligently ſought for, and brought to this great rendevouſe of carcaſſes. It is difficult to conceive the horror of this general diſinterment. Laſitan has painted it in a very lively manner.

" Without queſtion, ſays he, the opening of theſe tombs diſplays one of the moſt ſtriking ſcenes that can be conceived. It is a humbling portrait of human miſery exhibited in various images of death, wherein ſhe ſeems to take a pleaſure to

paint herſelf in a thouſand various ſhapes of horror in the ſeveral carcaſſes, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a ſort of parchment upon their bones; ſome look as if they were baked and ſmoaked, without any appearance of rottenneſs; ſome are juſt turning towards the point of putrefaction, whilſt others are all ſwarming with worms, and drowned in corruption.

"It is hard to tell which ought to ſtrike us moſt, the horror of ſo ſhocking a ſight, or the tender piety and affection of theſe poor people towards their departed friends. For nothing deſerves our admiration more, than the eager diligence and attention with which they diſcharge this melancholy duty of their tenderneſs, gathering up carefully even the ſmalleſt bones; handling the carcaſſes, diſguſtful as they are with every thing loathſome; cleanſing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their ſhoulders, through tireſome journies of ſeveral days, without being diſcouraged by their inſupportable ſtench; and without ſuffering any other emotions to ariſe than thoſe of regret for having loſt perſons who were ſo dear to them in their lives, and ſo lamented in their death."

This ſtrange feſtival is the moſt magnificent and ſolemn which they have, not only on account of the great concourſe of natives and ſtrangers, and of the pompous reinterment they give to the dead, whom they dreſs in the fineſt ſkins they can get, after having expoſed them ſome time in this pomp; but with regard to the games of all kinds which they celebrate on the oc-

occaſion, in the ſpirit of thoſe which the ancient Greeks and Romans celebrated upon ſimilar occaſions.

In this manner do they endeavour to ſooth the calamities of life, by the honours which they pay their dead: honours which are the more chearfully paid, becauſe, in his turn, each man expects to receive them himſelf. Though among theſe ſavage nations this cuſtom is impreſſed with ſtrong marks of the ferocity of their nature, an honour for the dead, a tender feeling of their abſence, and a revival of their memory, are ſome of the moſt excellent means for ſmoothing our rugged nature into humanity. In civilized nations ſuch ceremonies are leſs practiſed, becauſe other expedients for the ſame purpoſes are leſs wanted: but it is certain, that a regard for the dead is ancient and univerſal.

Though the women in America have generally the laborious part of the œconomy upon themſelves, yet they are far from being the ſlaves which they appear to be; and are not at all ſubject to the great ſubordination in which they are placed in countries where they ſeem to be more reſpected. On the contrary, all the honours of the nation are on the ſide of the women: they even hold their councils, and have their ſhare in all deliberations which concern the ſtate; nor are they found inferior to the part which they act. Polygamy is practiſed by ſome nations, but it is not general. In moſt they content themſelves with one wife; but a divorce is admitted, and for the ſame cauſes as it was allowed among the Jews, Greeks, and Romans. No nations of the Indians are without a regular marriage, in which

there are many ceremonies: the principal of which is the bride's presenting the bridegroom with a plate of their corn.

Though incontinent before wedlock, the chastity of their women after marriage is remarkable. The punishment of the adultress, as well as that of the adulterer, is in the hands of the husband himself; and it is often severe, as being inflicted by one who is at once the party and the judge.

Their marriages are not fruitful, seldom producing above two or three children: but they are brought forth with less pain than our women suffer upon such occasions, and with little consequent weakness. Probably that severe life which both sexes lead, is not favourable to procreation: and the habit which unmarried women have of procuring abortions, in which they rarely fail, makes them the more unfit for bearing of children afterwards. This is one of the reasons for the depopulation of America; for, whatever losses they suffer, either by epidemical diseases or by war, are but slowly repaired.

Almost the sole occupation of the Indian is war, or such exercises as qualify him for it. His whole glory consists in this: and no man is at all considered till he has increased the strength of his country with a captive, or adorned his house with the scalp of one of its enemies.

When the ancients among the Indians resolve upon a war, they do not always declare what nation they are determined to attack, that the enemy upon whom they really intend to fall, may be off his guard. Nay, they even some-

ſometimes let years paſs over without committing any act of hoſtility, that the vigilance of all may be unbent by the long continuance of the watch and the uncertainty of the danger. In the mean time, they are not idle at home: the principal captain ſummons the youth of the town to which he belongs: the war-kettle is ſet on the fire, the war-ſongs and dances begin: the hatchet is ſent to all the villages of the ſame nation, and to all its allies: the fire-catches, the war-ſongs are heard in all parts; and the moſt hideous howlings continue without intermiſſion day and night, over that whole tract of country. The women add their cries to thoſe of the men, lamenting ſuch as they have either loſt in war, or by a natural death; and demanding their places to be ſupplied from their enemies, ſtimulating the young men by a ſenſe of ſhame which women know how to excite in the ſtrongeſt manner, and can take the beſt advantage of it when excited.

When by theſe and every other means the fury of the nation is raiſed to the higheſt pitch; and all now long to embrue their hands in blood, the war-captain prepares the feaſt, which conſiſts in dog-fleſh. All that partake of this feaſt receive little billets, and theſe are ſo many engagements which they take to be faithful to each other, and obedient to their commander. None are forced to the war; but when they have accepted this billet, they are looked upon as liſted; and it is then death to recede.

All the warriors in this aſſembly have their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with daſhes and ſtreaks of vermillion, which give them a moſt horrid appearance. Their hair is

dreſſed up in an odd manner, with feathers of various kinds. In this aſſembly, which is preparatory to their military expedition, the chief begins the war-ſong, which being continued by him for ſome time, he raiſes his voice to the higheſt pitch, and then turning off ſuddenly to a ſort of prayer, he addreſſes himſelf to the God of war, whom they call Areſkoni: "I invoke thee, ſays he, to be favourable to my enterpriſe! I earneſtly intreat thy care over me and my family! I likewiſe invoke you, all ye ſpirits and demons, both good and evil! all you that are in the ſkies, or under the earth, to pour deſtruction upon our enemies; and to return me and my companions ſafely to our country."

All the warriors join in this prayer, with ſhouts and acclamations; then the captain renews his ſong, ſtrikes his club againſt the ſtakes of his cottage, and begins the war-dance, accompanied with the ſhouts of all his companions, which continue as long as he dances.

The day appointed for their departure being come, they take leave of their friends: they change their cloaths, or whatever moveables they have, in token of mutual friendſhip. Their wives and female relations go out before them, and attend at ſome diſtance from the town. The warriors march out all dreſſed in the fineſt apparel, and moſt ſhowy ornaments, regularly one after another: for they never march in ranks. The chief walks on ſlowly before them, ſinging the death-ſong, whilſt the reſt obſerve the moſt profound ſilence. When they come up to their women, they deliver up to them all their finery, put on their worſt cloaths, and then proceed as their commander thinks fit.

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Their motives for engaging in a war are rarely ſuch as excite us to it. They have no other view than the glory of the victory, or the benefit of the ſlaves which it enables them to add to their nation, or ſacrifice to their brutal fury: and it is ſeldom that they take any pains to give their wars even a colour of juſtice. It is no uncommon thing for the young men among them to make feaſts of dogs-fleſh, and war-dances, in ſmall parties, amidſt the moſt profound peace.

They fall ſometimes upon one nation, ſometimes upon another; and ſurpriſe ſome of their hunters, whom they ſcalp, or bring home as priſoners. Their ancient men wink at this, or rather encourage it, as tending to keep up the martial ſpirit of their people, enuring them to watchfulneſs and hardſhip, and giving them an early taſte for blood.

The qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a ſurpriſe; alſo patience and ſtrength to endure the intolerable fatigues and hardſhips which always attend it.

The nations of America are at an immenſe diſtance from one another, having a vaſt deſert frontier, and hid in the boſom of hideous and almoſt boundleſs foreſts. Theſe muſt be traverſed before they meet an enemy, who are often at ſo great a diſtance as might be ſuppoſed ſufficient to prevent either quarrel or danger: but notwithſtanding the ſecrecy of the deſtination of that party which firſt moves, the enemy have frequently notice of it, are prepared for the attack, and ready to take advantage of the ſame manner of the leaſt want of vi-

gilance in the aggreſſors. Their whole art of war conſiſts in this: they never fight in the open field; but upon ſome very extraordinary occaſions: not from cowardice, for they are brave; but they deſpiſe this method, as unworthy an able warrior, and as an affair in which fortune governs more than ſkill or prudence.

The principal things which help them to find out their enemies, are the ſmoke of their fires, which they ſmell at a diſtance almoſt incredible; alſo their tracks, in the diſcovery and diſtinguiſhing of which they are poſſeſſed of a ſagacity equally aſtoniſhing: for they can tell by the footſteps, which to us would ſeem moſt confuſed, the number of men that have paſſed, and the length of time ſince they have paſſed. They even go ſo far as to diſtinguiſh the ſeveral nations by the different prints and peculiar marks of their feet, and to perceive footſteps, where we could diſtinguiſh nothing. A mind diligently intent upon one thing, and exerciſed in it by long experience, will go lengths which at firſt view are ſcarcely credible.

But as they who are attacked have the ſame knowledge, and are as apt to draw the ſame advantages from it, their great addreſs is to baffle each other in theſe points.

On the expedition they light no fire to warm themſelves, or prepare their victuals; but they ſubſiſt merely on the miſerable pittance of ſome meal mixed with water. They lie cloſe to the ground all day, and march only in the night.

As they march in the uſual order in files, he who cloſes the rear diligently covers his own tracks, and thoſe of all that preceded him, with leaves.

leaves. If any ſtream occurs in their route, they march in it a conſiderable way in order to foil their purſuers.

When they halt to reſt and refreſh themſelves, ſcouts are ſent out on every ſide to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they ſuſpect an enemy may lie concealed. In this manner they often enter a village, whilſt the ſtrength of the nation is employed in hunting, where they maſſacre all the helpleſs old men, women and children, or make priſoners as many as they judge they can manage, or have ſtrength enough to be uſeful to their nation.

They often cut off ſmall parties of men in their huntings; but when they diſcover an army of their enemies, their way is, to throw themſelves flat on their faces, among the withered leaves; the colour of which their bodies are painted to reſemble exactly. They generally let a party paſs unmoleſted; and then riſing a little, they take aim, for they are excellent markſmen; and ſetting up a moſt tremendous ſhout, which they call the war-cry, they pour a ſtorm of muſket bullets upon the enemy; for they have long ſince laid aſide the uſe of arrows. The party attacked returns the ſame cry. Every man in haſte covers himſelf with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverſe party, as ſoon as they raiſe themſelves from the ground to give the ſecond fire.

After fighting ſome time in this manner, the party which thinks it has the advantage, ruſhes out from its covert, with ſmall axes in their hands, which they dart with great addreſs and dexterity: they then redouble their cries, intimi-

timidating their enemies with menaces, and encouraging each other with a boaſtful diſplay of their own brave actions. Being thus come hand to hand, the conteſt is ſoon decided, and the conquerors ſatiate their ſavage fury with the moſt ſhocking inſults and barbarities to the dead bodies, biting their fleſh off, tearing the ſcalp from their heads, and even wallowing in their blood like wild beaſts.

The fate of their priſoners is the moſt ſevere of all: during the greateſt part of their journey homewards they ſuffer no injury, but when they arrive at the territories of the conquering ſtate, or at thoſe of their allies, the people from every village meet them, and think that they ſhew their attachment to their friends by their barbarous treatment of the unhappy priſoners; ſo that when they arrive at their ſtation, they are wounded and bruiſed in a terrible manner. The conquerors enter the town in triumph. The war-captain waits upon the head men, and in a low voice, gives them a circumſtantial account concerning every particular of the expedition, the damage which the enemy have ſuſtained, and his own loſſes in it. This being done, the public orator relates the whole to the people. Before they yield to the joy which the victory occaſions, they firſt lament the friends they have loſt in the purſuit of it. The parties moſt nearly concerned are apparently afflicted with a deep and real ſorrow; but by one of thoſe ſtrange turns of the human mind, faſhioned to any thing through cuſtom, as if they were diſciplined in their grief, upon the ſignal being given for rejoicing, in a moment all tears are wiped from their eyes, and they

they fall into an extravagance and phrenzy of joy, on account of their victory.

In the mean time the fate of the prisoners remains undecided, till the ancients meet and determine concerning the distribution. It is usual to offer a slave to each house that has lost a friend, giving the preference according to the greatness of the loss. The person who has taken the captive attends him to the door of the cottage to which he is delivered; and with him he gives a belt of wampum, to shew that he has fulfilled the purpose of the expedition, in supplying the loss of a citizen.

They view the present which is made them for some time, and according as they think him or her, (for the case is the same which,) either proper or improper for the business of the family; or as they take a capricious liking or dislike to the countenance of the person; or in proportion to their natural brutality; or their resentment for their losses, they determine accordingly, either to receive the poor creature into their family, or sentence him to death, as a victim. If the latter be their determination, they throw away the belt with indignation; and then it is no longer in the power of any one to save him. The nation is assembled, as upon some great solemnity; a scaffold is raised, and the prisoner tied to the stake: he instantly opens his death-song, and prepares for the ensuing scene of cruelty with the most undaunted courage. On the other side, they prepare to put it to the utmost proof, with every torment which the mind of man ingenious in mischief, can invent. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the trunk.

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One plucks out his nails by the roots ſingly, another takes a finger into his mouth and tears off the fleſh with his teeth; a third thruſts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bole of a pipe made red hot, which he ſmoaks like tobacco. Then they pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two ſtones: they cut circles round his joints, and gaſhes in the fleſhy parts of his limbs, which they ſear immediately with red hot irons, flaſhing and ſearing alternately: they pull off his fleſh, thus mangled and waſted, bit by bit, devouring it with greedineſs, and ſmearing their faces with the blood, in the mad phrenzy of fury and horror. After they have thus torn off the fleſh, they twiſt the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and ſnapping them; whilſt others are employed in pulling and extending the limbs themſelves in every manner that can increaſe the torture. This often continues for five or ſix hours together: then they frequently unbind the poor creature to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they ſhall inflict, and to recover the ſtrength of the ſufferer, who, wearied out with ſuch a variety of unheard-of torments, often falls immediately into ſo profound a ſleep, that they apply the fire to awake him and renew his ſufferings.

He is again faſtened to the ſtake, and they renew their cruelty: they ſtick him all over with ſmall matches, of a wood which eaſily takes fire, but burns ſlowly: they continually run ſharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thruſt out his eyes: and laſtly, after having burnt his fleſh off his bones with ſlow fires, after having

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ſo mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in ſuch a manner as to carry nothing of human in it; after having peeled the ſkin from the head, and poured a heap of red hot coals, or boiling water on the naked ſkull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, both blind and ſtaggering with pain and weakneſs; aſſaulted and pelted upon every ſide with clubs and ſtones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every ſtep, he runs hither and thither, till ſome of the chiefs, whether out of compaſſion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle; and this ſhocking ſcene is ſucceeded by a feaſt as ſhocking.

But this account, for the moſt part, ſeems to ſtagger all credibility, that after ſo many and ſuch exquiſite tortures ſo long inflicted, any human being upon earth could poſſibly ſurvive the tenth part, to ſay no more, of that aſtoniſhing load of ſufferings! unleſs my author very much exaggerates in his detail of them—But to proceed:

The women, forgetting the female nature, and on ſuch occaſions being transformed into ſomething worſe than furies, act their parts in this dreadful cataſtrophe, and even outdo the men. The principal perſons of the country ſit round the ſtake ſmoaking and looking on without the leaſt emotion. What is moſt extraordinary, the ſufferer himſelf, in the little intervals of his torments, ſmoaks too, appears unconcerned, and converſes with his tormentors about indifferent matters. During the whole time of his execution indeed, there ſeems to be a con-

a conteſt between him and them which ſhall exceed: they in inflicting the moſt horrid pains, or he in enduring them with a firmneſs and conſtancy, almoſt, if not quite above human! Not a groan, ſigh, nor diſtortion of countenance eſcapes him: he poſſeſſes his mind entirely in the midſt of his torments; he recounts his own exploits: he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge which ſhall attend his death, &c. &c.

The priſoners who have the happineſs to pleaſe thoſe to whom they are offered, have a fortune altogether oppoſite to that of thoſe who are condemned: they are adopted into the family; they are accepted in the place of the father, ſon, or huſband that is loſt; and they have no other mark of their captivity, but that they are not ſuffered to return to their own nation. To attempt this would be certain death.

The principal purpoſe of the war is to recruit in this manner; for which reaſon, a general who loſes many of his men, though he ſhould conquer, is little better than diſgraced at home; becauſe the end of the war was not anſwered. They are therefore extremely careful of their men, and never chuſe to attack but with a very undoubted ſuperiority, either in number or ſituation.

The ſcalps, which they value ſo much, are the trophies of their bravery; with theſe they adorn their houſes, and the latter are eſtemed in proportion as this ſort of ſpoils are more numerous.

They have ſolemn days appointed, upon which

which the young men gain a new name or title of honour from their head men; and these titles are given according to the qualities of the person and his performances, of which these scalps are the evidence. This is all the reward they receive for the dangers of the war, and the fatigues of many campaigns, severe almost beyond credit. They think it abundantly sufficient to have a name given by their governors, men of merit themselves, and judges of it: a name respected by their countrymen, and terrible to their enemies.

Don Ulloa, in his celebrated voyage to South America, draws a very different, and at the same time, a very melancholy picture of the Indians in the province of Quito, where the cruel usage of their Spanish masters has quite destroyed their former spirit, and love of liberty, and rendered them stupid, lazy, and contemptible.

It is no easy task, says this ingenious Spaniard, to exhibit a true picture of the customs and inclinations of the Indians of Quito, in South America; and precisely display their genius and real turn of mind; for if, considered as part of the human species, the narrow limits of their understanding seem to clash with the dignity of the soul; and such is their stupidity, that in certain particulars, one can scarce forbear entertaining an idea that they are really beasts, and even destitute of that instinct we observe in the brute creation; while in other respects a more comprehensive judgment, better digested schemes, and conducted with great subtilty, are not to be found than among these people. This dispute may mislead the most discern-

cerning perſon; for, ſhould he form his judgment from their firſt actions, he muſt neceſſarily conclude them to be a people of the greateſt penetration and vivacity; but when he reflects on their rudeneſs, the abſurdity of their opinions, and their beaſtly manner of living, his ideas muſt take a different turn, and repreſent them in a degree little above brutes.

Such is the diſpoſition of the Indians, that if their indifference to temporal things did not extend itſelf alſo to the eternal, they might be ſaid to equal the happineſs of the golden age, of which the ancient poets have given ſuch enchanting deſcriptions.

They poſſeſs a tranquility immutable, either by fortunate or unfortunate events. In their mean apparel they are as contented as the monarch or prince cloathed with the moſt ſplendid inventions of luxury; and ſo far are they from entertaining a deſire for better or more comfortable cloathing, that they give themſelves no manner of concern about lengthening their own, though half their bodies continue naked. They ſhew the like diſregard for riches; and even that authority or grandeur within their reach is ſo little the object of their ambition, that to all appearance it is the ſame thing to an Indian, whether he be created an alcalde or forced to perform the office of common executioner.

And thus reciprocal eſteem among them is neither heightened nor leſſened by ſuch circumſtances. The ſame moderation appears in their food, never deſiring more than what ſuffices; and they enjoy their coarſe ſimple diet with the ſame complacency as others do their

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well furnifhed tables. It is not indeed to be queftioned, but if they had their choice of either, they would prefer the latter: but, at the fame time, they fhew fo little concern for the enjoyments of life, as nearly approaches to a total contempt of them: in fhort, the moft fimple and eafieft preparation feems beft adapted to their humour.

Nothing can move them, or alter their minds; even intereft here lofes all its power: it being common for them to decline doing fome little act of fervice, though offered a very confiderable reward. Fear cannot ftimulate, refpect induce, or punifhment compel them: they are indeed of a very fingular turn of mind; proof againft every attempt to roufe them from their natural indolence, in which they feem to look down with contempt on the wifeft of mortals; fo firmly bigotted to their own grofs ignorance, that the wifeft meafures to improve their underftanding, have been rendered abortive; and fo fond of their fimplicity and indolence, that all the efforts and attention of the moft vigilant have mifcarried. Some particular inftances will more clearly evince this.

The Indians are in general remarkably flow, but very perfevering; and this has given rife to a proverb, when any thing of little value in itfelf requires a great deal of time and patience, "That it is only fit to be done by an Indian." In weaving of carpets, curtains, quilts, and other ftuffs, being unacquainted with any better method, at paffing the woof, they have the patience every time to count the threads one by one; fo that two or three years is requifite to finifh a fingle piece. This flownefs, undoubtedly,

doubtedly, is not altogether to be attributed to the genius of the nation; it flows in ſome meaſure for want of a method better adapted to diſpatch; and, perhaps, with proper inſtructions, they would make conſiderable progreſs, as they readily comprehend whatever is ſhewn them relating to mechanics: of this the antiquities, ſtill remaining in the province of Quito, and over all Peru, are undeniable teſtimonies.

This indifference and dilatorineſs of the Indians is blended with ſloth, its natural companion; and their ſloth is ſuch, that neither their own intereſt, nor their duty to their maſters, can prevail on them to undertake any work. Whatever, therefore, is of abſolute neceſſity to be done, the care of it is left to the Indian women. Theſe ſpin, and make the half ſhirts and drawers, which conſtitute the whole apparel of their huſbands: they cook the matalotage, or food univerſally uſed among them; they grind the barley for machea, roaſt the maize for the cameha, and brew the chicha. In the mean time, unleſs the maſter has been fortunate enough to get the better of the huſband's ſloth, and take him to work, he ſits a-ſquat on his hams, (this being the uſual poſture of all the Indians,) and looks on his wife while ſhe is doing the neceſſary works of the family; but, unleſs to drink, he never moves from the fire-ſide, till obliged to come to table, or wait on his acquaintance.

The only domeſtic labour they do, is to plow their chacarita, or little ſpot of land, in order to the ſowing of it: but the latter, together with the reſt of the culture, makes another part, which is alſo done by the wife and children.

dren. When they are once ſettled in the above poſture, no reward can make them ſtir; ſo that if a traveller has loſt his way, and happens to come to any of theſe cottages, they hide themſelves, and charge their wives to ſay that they are not at home, when the whole labour only conſiſts in accompanying the traveller a quarter of a league, or perhaps leſs, to put him on his way; and for this ſmall ſervice he would get a rial, or half a rial, at leaſt. Should the traveller alight and enter the cottage, the Indian would ſtill be ſafe; for having no light but what comes through a hole of the door, he could not be diſcovered; and even if he ſhould ſee the Indian, neither entreaties nor offers would prevail on the ſlothful wretch to ſtir a ſtep with him: and the caſe is the ſame, if they are to be employed in any other buſineſs.

That the Indians may perform the works appointed by their maſters, and for which they are properly paid, it will be of little ſignification to ſhew them their taſk; the maſter muſt have his eye continually upon them; for whenever he turns his back, the Indian immediately leaves off working. The only thing in which they ſhew a lively ſenſation and alacrity, is for parties of pleaſure, rejoicings, entertainments, and eſpecially dancings: but in all theſe, the liquor muſt circulate briſkly, which ſeems to be their ſupreme enjoyment.

With this they begin the day, and continue drinking till they are entirely deprived both of ſenſe and motion.

Such is their propenſity to intemperance, that they are not reſtrained by any dignity of character. The cacique and alcalde never fail to

be of the company at all entertainments; and they drink like the reſt, till the chicha has quite overcome them. It is worthy of notice, that the Indian women, whether maids or married, and alſo Indian young men, before they are of an age to contract matrimony, entirely abſtain from this beaſtly vice; it being a maxim among them, that drunkenneſs is only the privilege of maſters of families, as being perſons, who, when they are unable to take care of themſelves, have others to take care of them.

Their manner of celebrating any ſolemnity is too ſingular to be omitted: the perſon who gives the entertainment invites all his acquaintance, and provides chicha ſufficient for the number of his gueſts, at the rate of a jugg for each; and this jugg holds about two gallons. In the court of a houſe, if it be a large town, or before the cottage if in a village, a table is placed and covered with a Tucuyo carpet, which is only uſed on ſuch feſtivities. The eatables conſiſt wholly of camcha, and ſome wild herbs boiled. When the gueſts meet, one or two leaves of theſe herbs, with ten or twelve grains of camcha finiſh the repaſt: immediately the women preſent themſelves, with calabaſhes or round totumos, called pilches, full of chicha for their huſbands, and repeat it till their ſpirits are raiſed: then one of them plays on the tabor and pipe, whilſt others dance, as they call it, though it is no more than moving confuſedly from one ſide to the other, without either meaſure or order. Some of the beſt voices among the Indian women, ſing ſongs in their own language. Thus their mirth continues, while kept up by the liquor; which, as has been ſaid, is the ſoul

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of all their meetings. Another odd circumſtance is, that thoſe who do not dance ſquat themſelves down in their uſual poſtures, till it comes to their turn. The table ſerves only for ſtate, there being nothing on it to eat, nor do the gueſts ſit down at it. When tired with intemperance, they all lay down together, without minding whether near the wife of any other, or their own ſiſter, daughter, or a more diſtant relation; ſo ſhocking are the exceſſes to which they give themſelves up on theſe ſolemnities, which are ſometimes continued three or four days, till the prieſts find themſelves obliged to go in perſon, throw away all the chicha, and diſperſe the Indians, leſt they ſhould purchaſe more.

The day after the feſtival is called concho, which ſignifies the day for drinking off the remains of the preceding. With theſe they begin; and if not ſufficient to complete their revel, every one of the gueſts runs home to his houſe and fetches a jug, or they club for more. This occaſions a new concho for the next day; and thus, if left to themſelves, from day to day, till either no more chicha is to be had, or they without either money or credit.

Their burials are likewiſe ſolemnized with exceſſive drinking. The houſe of mourning is filled with jugs of chicha; and not for the ſolace of the mourners and their viſitors alone, but the latter go out into the ſtreets, and invite all of their nation who happen to paſs by, whether married or ſingle of both ſexes, to come and drink to the honour of the deceaſed; and to this invitation they will take no denial. This ceremony laſts four or five days, and ſometimes

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more; ſtrong liquor being their ſupreme wiſh, and the great object of all their labours.

If the Indians are thus exceſſively addicted to intemperance, gaming is a fault with which they cannot be charged. Though theſe two vices are generally ſeen together, they ſeem to have no manner of inclination for play; nor have they above one game, and that of great antiquity among them: this they call paſa, i. e. a hundred, as he wins who firſt gets that number.

When they ſet out on a journey, their whole viaticum is a little bag, which they call gueri-ta, full of meal or maize, and a ſpoon; and this ſuffices for a journey of 50 or 100 leagues. When hungry or fatigued, they ſtop at ſome place where chicha is to be had, or at ſome water, where, after taking a ſpoonful of their meal into their mouth, they keep it ſome time, in order the more eaſily to ſwallow it; and with two or three ſuch ſpoonfuls, well diluted with chicha, or with water, they ſet forward as chearfully as if riſen from a feaſt.

Their habitations are very ſmall, conſiſting only of a little cottage, in the middle of which is their fire-place: here both they and the animals they breed, live promiſcuouſly. They have a particular fondneſs for dogs, and never are without three or four little curs in their huts; a hog or two, and a little poultry, with ſome earthen ware, as pots and jugs, and the cotton which their wives ſpin, conſtitute the whole inventory of an Indian's effects. Their beds conſiſt of two or three ſheep ſkins, without pillows or any thing elſe; and on theſe they ſleep in their uſual ſquatting poſture; and as they never undreſs, appear always in the ſame garb.

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Though the Indian women breed fowl and other domeſtic animals in their cottages, they never eat them; but conceive ſuch a fondneſs for them, that they will not even ſell them, much leſs kill them with their own hands: ſo that if a ſtranger, who is obliged to paſs the night in one of their cottages, offers ever ſo much money for a fowl, they refuſe to part with it, and he finds himſelf under a neceſſity of killing it. At this his landlady ſhrieks, diſſolves in tears, and wrings her hands, as if it had been an only ſon; till ſeeing the miſchief paſt remedy, ſhe wipes her eyes, and quietly takes what the traveller offers her.

Many of them in their journies take their whole family with them, the women carrying on their ſhoulders ſuch children as are unable to walk. The cottages, in the mean time, are ſhut up; and there being no furniture to loſe, a ſtring or thong of leather ſerves for a lock. Their animals, if the journey is to laſt for ſeveral days, they carry to the cottage of ſome neighbour or acquaintance: if otherwiſe, their curs are left guardians of the whole; and theſe diſcharge their truſt with ſuch care, that they will fly at any one, except their maſters, who offers to come near the cottage. And here it is worth obſerving, that dogs bred by Spaniards and Meſtizoes, have ſuch a hatred to the Indians, that if one of them approaches a houſe where he is not very well known, they fall upon him, and if not called off, tear him to pieces; for they know them at a diſtance by their ſmell: and, on the other hand, the dogs of Indian breed are animated with the ſame

rage againſt the Spaniards and Meſtizoes; and, like the former, ſmell them at a like diſtance.

The Indians, except thoſe brought up in cities or towns, ſpeak no other language than their own, called quichua, which was eſtabliſhed by the Yncas, with an order for its being propagated all over their vaſt empire, that their ſubjects might be able to underſtand each other; and therefore it was diſtinguiſhed by the name of the Yncas language. Some underſtand the Spaniſh, and ſpeak it; yet very few have the good nature to anſwer in it, though they know at the ſame time, that the perſon with whom they are converſing cannot underſtand them in quichua. Nor is it of any conſequence to deſire and preſs them to explain themſelves in Spaniſh; for this they abſolutely refuſe: whereas, it is quite otherwiſe with the Indians who are born and bred in the towns; for if ſpoken to in their own language, they are ſure to anſwer in Spaniſh.

Superſtition is general among them; and they all pretend, more or leſs, to fortune-telling. This weakneſs is alſo of a long ſtanding among them, and which neither the remonſtrances of the prieſts, nor their own experience, can cure radically. Thus they employ little tricks, ſuppoſed charms, and ſtrange compoſitions, in order to attain ſome viſionary happineſs, for the ſucceſs of a favourite ſcheme, or other weighty concern.

In theſe preſages their minds are ſo infatuated, that to bring them to a ſenſe of the folly and wickedneſs of ſuch practices, and ſolidly to embrace the chriſtian religion, is a work of the greateſt difficulty: and even when they have em-

braced it, are ſo ſuperficial and fickle, that if they attend divine ſervice on Sundays and holidays, it is merely from fear of puniſhment; for otherwiſe there would he ſcarcely one Indian, eſpecially of the meaner ſort, among the whole congregation.

In their marriages they run counter to the ſentiments of all nations, eſteeming what others deteſt; for they never of their own choice marry a woman who has not been previouſly known by others; looking on it as a ſure ſign that ſhe had nothing pleaſing in her.

A great part of the barbariſm and ruſticity in the minds of the Indians muſt indeed be imputed to the want of culture; for they who, in ſome parts, have enjoyed that advantage, are found to be no leſs rational than other men: and if they do not attain to all the politeneſs of civilized nations, they, at leaſt, think properly.

The Indians of the miſſion of Paraguay are, among others, remarkable inſtances of this; who from an ambulatory and ſavage manner of living, have been reduced to order, reaſon, and religion. For which purpoſe ſchools were ſet up for inſtructing the young Indians in Spaniſh; and ſuch as were found to be of a ſuitable genius, were taught Latin: ſo that in all the villages they are not only taught to read and write, but alſo inſtructed in mechanic arts: and the artificers here are not inferior to thoſe of Europe. Theſe Indians in their cuſtoms and intellects are a different ſort of people from thoſe before-mentioned: they have a knowledge of things, a clear diſcernment of the turpitude of vice, and the amiableneſs of virtue;

acting up likewise to these sentiments. Not that they have any natural advantages over the other; for it has been observed, throughout the whole kingdom, that the Indians of its several provinces are alike; so that those of Quito are not more deficient in their understandings than those of Valles or Lima; nor are these more acute or sagacious than the natives of Chili and Arauco.

In confirmation of what has been advanced, we have a general instance in the province of Quito; for all the Indians brought up to handicraft trades in cities and large towns, and who speak Spanish, are far more acute and sensible than those who have spent their lives in little villages; and their behaviour more comformable to the dictates of a rational being. They are men of abilities and skill, having also divested themselves of many of their errors; whence they are denominated ladino's, or knowing men; and if they retain any of the culpable practices of the former, it is from the infection of intercourse, or from a mistaken notion, that they should keep them up, as transmitted to them from their ancestors. Among these are chiefly distinguished the barber-surgeons, who bleed with such dexterity, as, in the opinion of very good judges, to equal the most famous in Europe: and their intercourse with persons of a liberal education enlightens their understandings, so that they distinguish themselves to great advantage among their countrymen.

The Indians in general are robust and of a good constitution; and though the venereal distemper is so common in Quito, it is seldom known among them; the principal cause of which

which unqueſtionably lies in the quality of the juices of their body not being ſuſceptible to the venom of this diſtemper. Many, however, attribute it to the quality of the chicha, their common drink.

The diſeaſe which makes the greateſt havock among them, is the ſmall-pox, which is ſo fatal, that few eſcape it; accordingly it is looked upon, in this country, as a peſtilence. This diſtemper is not continual as in other nations, ſeven, eight, or more years paſſing without its being heard of: but when it prevails, towns and villages are ſoon thinned of their inhabitants. This deſolation is owing partly to the malignity of the diſeaſe, and partly to the want of phyſicians and nurſes.

INDIES, WEST, a name given to America, in contra-diſtinction to the Eaſt Indies, in Aſia; the former lying W. of Europe, and the latter E. The name owes its origin to a preſumption of the firſt diſcoverers of America, that they extended and even joined, though diſtant from each other about half the circumference of the terraqueous globe. See AMERICA.

INNA-QUITO, one of two ſpacious plains upon the N. ſide of Quito, in Peru. See QUITO.

INVERNESS, NEW, a ſettlement of Georgia, in North America, ſo called from its having been principally peopled by Highlanders and ſervants collected from the town and ſhire of the ſame name in the north of Scotland, and carried from thence by captain William Mackintoſh, in the year 1738, by order of the Georgia truſtees, and under the command of

captain George Dunbar. It lies in the S. part of the province, on the river Alatamha, about 20 miles from Frederica.

JOHN'S, ST. an island in the bay, at the entrance of the river of St. Laurence, in North America. It has Nova Scotia on the S. and W. and Cape Breton on the E.

JONAS'S, SUND, the most northern inlet on the western coast of Sir Thomas Smith's bay, lying near the arctic circle, in lat. 76. N.

IPSWICH, NEW, a town of Essex county, the most northerly part of the colony of Massachuset's bay. It lies on the north side of Cape Anne, on the banks of a fine river. The inferior court is kept here the last Tuesday in March, and the superior the third Tuesday in May.

IRON-CASTLE, or as the Spaniards call it, St. Philip de todo Fierro, one of the forts of Porto Bello, in South America, which admiral Vernon took and destroyed in 1739.

IROQUOIS, the most considerable and best known of all the Indians of North America, as well as the strongest and most powerful.

Their country lies between lat. 41. and 44. N. and extends about 70 or 80 leagues from E. to W. From the source of the river of the Iroquois to that of Richelieu and Sorel; from the lake of St. Sacrement to the fall of Niagara; and upwards of 40 leagues from N. to S. namely, from the spring-head of the river Agniers to the Ohio, which, together with Pensylvania, forms the southern boundary. It is terminated on the W. by lake Ontario, on the S. W. by lake Eric, on the N. by lake George, and the river

river St. Laurence, and by New York on the N. E.

They are divided into ſeveral cantons, the five principal of which are, the Tſonantovans, Goyogoans, Ounotagues, Ounogoats, and Agniez.

Theſe five nations have each a large village, conſiſting of mean huts, about 30 leagues from one another, moſtly ſeated along the ſouthern coaſt of lake Ontario. They all ſpeak nearly the ſame language, and unite in a kind of Swiſs democracy. See INDIANS.

ISCA, or rather ICA, with Piſco and Naſca, three towns from which a juriſdiction of Lima in Peru, South America, has its name.

One part of the juriſdiction extends above 60 leagues along the coaſt to the ſouthward, but intermixed with ſome deſarts; ſo that the country being ſandy, thoſe parts which are beyond the reach of the trenches cut from the rivers, are generally barren: but there are ſome tracts, which, without the benefit of an artificial watering, are planted with vines, and produce excellent grapes; the root being ſupplied with moiſture from the internal humidity of the earth. Great quantities of wine are made from them, and chiefly exported to Calao, and from thence to Guayaquil, and Panama: alſo to Guamanga, and other inland provinces. They alſo extract from theſe wines great quantities of brandy. Some parts of this juriſdiction are planted with olive trees, which produce excellent fruit either for eating or for oil.

The fields which are watered by the trenches, yield an uncommon plenty of wheat, maize, and fruits. This juriſdiction is remarkable for ſpacious woods of carob trees, with the fruit of

which the inhabitants feed vaſt numbers of aſſes for the uſes of agriculture, both in their own and the neighbouring juriſdictions. The Indians who live near the ſea apply themſelves to fiſhing, and, after ſalting of their fiſh, carry them to the towns among the mountains, where they never fail of a good market.

Juan Fernandes, an iſland in the South Sea, lying in lat. 33. 40. S. 100 leagues diſtant from the continent of Chili, and 440 to the N. of Cape Horn. On the E. ſide of it is a ſmall iſland, called Goat-iſland, and on the S. W. a rock, called Monkey Key. It has two bays, where ſhips may ride in ſafety, one called Eaſt-Bay, and the other Cumberland Bay; but the latter, which is that where commodore Anſon's ſquadron lay, is the moſt commodious.

The iſland itſelf is of an irregular figure, its greateſt extent being between four and five leagues, and its greateſt breadth hardly five miles. The only ſafe anchoring at this iſland is on the north ſide, in one of the bays above-mentioned: but the middlemoſt, known by the name of Cumberland Bay, is the wideſt and deepeſt, and in all reſpects much the beſt. The other two bays, denominated the E. and W. Bays, are ſcarcely more than good landing-places, where boats may conveniently put their caſks on ſhore. Cumberland Bay is pretty well ſecured to the ſouthward, lying only expoſed from the N. by W. to the E. by S. and as the northerly winds ſeldom blow in that climate, and never with any violence, the danger from that quarter is not worth attending to.

As this laſt mentioned bay is by far the moſt commodious road in the iſland, ſo it is adviſeable for all ſhips to anchor on the weſtern

ſide

ſide of it, within little more than two cabſes length of the beach. Here they may ride in forty fathom of water, and be in a great meaſure ſheltered from a large heavy ſea, which comes rolling in, whenever an eaſtern or a weſtern wind blows. It is however expedient, in this caſe, to cackle, or arm the cables with an iron chain, or good rounding, for five or ſix fathom from the anchor, to ſecure them from being rubbed by the foulneſs of the ground.

The northern part of this iſland is compoſed of high craggy hills, many of them inacceſſible, though generally covered with trees. The ſoil is looſe and ſhallow, ſo that very large trees on the hills ſoon periſh for want of nouriſhment.

The ſouthern, or rather S. W. part of the iſland, is widely different from the reſt, being dry, ſtony, and deſtitute of trees; but very flat and low, compared with the hills on the northern ſide. This part of the iſland is never frequented by ſhips, being ſurrounded by a ſteep ſhore, and having little or no freſh water. It is alſo expoſed to the ſoutherly winds, which generally blow the greateſt part of the year; and about the winter ſolſtice very hard. The trees of which the woods on the northern ſide of the iſland are compoſed, are generally of the aromatic kind, and of various ſorts. There are none of them of a magnitude to yield any conſiderable timber, except the myrtle trees, which are the largeſt on the iſland. The top of the myrtle tree is circular, and appears as uniform and regular, as if clipped by art: it bears on its bark an excreſcence reſembling moſs, but taſtes and ſmells like garlick. Here is the pimento, and the cabbage tree, but in no great plenty.

In ſome places are ſeveral hills of a peculiar ſort of red earth, exceeding vermilion in colour; which perhaps, on examination, might prove uſeful for many purpoſes.

The iſland abounds with plants of various kinds, eſpecially thoſe uſually eſteemed as excellent in thoſe ſcorbutic diſorders contracted by ſalt diet, and long voyages; particularly water-creſſes, and purſlain, with excellent wild ſorrel, and a vaſt profuſion of turneps, and Sicilian radiſhes.

The woods on the northern parts of the iſland are free from all buſhes and underwood, and affords an eaſy paſſage through every part of them; and the irregularities of the hills and precipices, form, by their various combinations, a great number of romantic vallies, moſt of which have a ſtream of the cleareſt water running through them, and at laſt tumble in caſcades from rock to rock, till they fall into the ocean. Some particular ſpots in theſe valleys, where the ſhade and fragrance of the contiguous woods, the loftineſs of the overhanging rocks, and the tranſparency and frequent falls of the neighbouring ſtreams, exhibit ſcenes of ſuch elegance and dignity, as perhaps are hardly to be equalled in any other part of the globe. In ſhort, the ſimple productions of unaſſiſted nature may here be ſaid to excel all the fictitious deſcriptions of the moſt animated imagination.

This iſland formerly abounded with vaſt numbers of goats, being the uſual ſtation of the privateers who then frequented thoſe ſeas: and there are two inſtances, one of a Muſquito Indian, and another of Alexander Selkirk, a Scotſman, who were left by their re-

ſpec-

ſpective ſhips, and lived alone upon this iſland for ſome years, and conſequently were no ſtrangers to its produce.

But the Spaniards being informed of the advantages which the privateers drew from theſe proviſions, endeavoured to extirpate the breed, by putting on ſhore great numbers of large dogs, which have increaſed apace, and deſtroyed all the goats in the acceſſible part of the country; ſo that there now remain only a few among the craggs and precipices, where the dogs cannot follow them: theſe are divided into ſeparate herds of 20 or 30 each, which inhabit diſtinct faſtneſſes, and never mingle with one another.

But what is moſt remarkable, is an amphibious creature to be met with, called a ſea lion, (Ulloa terms it a ſea wolf) which bears ſome reſemblance to a ſeal, though much larger. Theſe animals, at their full growth, are from 12 to 20 feet in length, and from 8 to 15 in circumference: they are extremely fat; ſo that, after having cut through the ſkin, which is about an inch in thickneſs, there is at leaſt a foot of fat before you can come at either lean or bones; and the fat of ſome of the largeſt have afforded a butt of oil. They are likewiſe very full of blood; for if they are deeply wounded in a dozen places, there will inſtantly guſh out as many fountains of blood, ſpouting to a conſiderable diſtance. Their ſkins are covered with ſhort hair, of a light dun colour; but their tails and fins, which ſerve them for feet on ſhore, are almoſt black: their fins are divided at the ends, like fingers; the web which joins them not reaching to the extremities, and each of theſe extremities is furniſhed with a nail. The

males

males have a large ſnout or trunk hanging down five or ſix inches below the end of the upper jaw; a particular not found in the females: beſides, the males are much larger.

Theſe animals divide their time equally between the land and ſea, continuing at ſea all the ſummer, and coming on ſhore at the ſetting in of the winter, where they reſide during that whole ſeaſon. In this interval they engender, and bring forth their young; and have generally two at a birth: theſe they ſuckle with their milk, they being at firſt about the ſize of a full grown ſeal. During the time of theſe animals continuance on ſhore, they feed on the graſs and verdure which grows near the banks of the freſh water ſtreams; and when not employed in feeding, they ſleep in herds in the moſt miry places they can find: but they are of a very lethargic diſpoſition, and not eaſily awaked. Each herd places ſome of their males at a diſtance, in the nature of centinels, who never fail to alarm them, whenever any perſon attempts to moleſt, or even approach them: and they are very capable of alarming, even at a conſiderable diſtance; for the noiſe they make is very loud, and of different kinds; ſometimes grunting like hogs, and at other times ſnorting like horſes in full vigour.

Fiſh is here in vaſt plenty, and with the greateſt variety; cod of a prodigious magnitude, gropers, large breams, maids, ſilver fiſh, congers of a peculiar kind; and above all, a black fiſh, the moſt valued of all, and called by ſome a chimney-ſweeper, reſembling in ſhape a carp. Beſides the fiſh already mentioned, crawfiſh, weighing eight or nine pounds a-piece,

a-piece, of a moſt excellent taſte, are found here in great abundance.

JUCATAN or YUCATAN, one of the ſeven provinces of the audience of Mexico, in North America. It is a peninſula, ſurrounded on the W. and N. by the gulph of Mexico, between the bay of Campeachy on the S. W. and that of Honduras on the S. E. having the little province of Tabaſco on the S. W. and that of Vera-paz in the audience of Guatimala on the S. where it is joined to the continent by an iſthmus not 40 leagues broad. This, in all reſpects, is a very noble country: it extends from lat. 17. to 21. 30. N. and from long. 91. to 95. W.

This climate is pretty warm in ſummer, which begins about April, and ends in September. It rarely rains here during the winter ſeaſon, though the weather is tolerably cool, except in January and February, which are almoſt as hot as in the middle of ſummer. It is, however, a very healthy country, eſpecially a large mountainous tract, extending from Salamanca on the W. to the eaſtern boundary, and where the natives live to a vaſt age. The ſouth ſide of this ridge is ill peopled, and worſe cultivated, for want of water; but the north part is very populous, being rendered pleaſant by gentle breezes; though the ſun is very hot. The days and nights are nearly equal all the year. The ſoil, when properly cultivated, produces great quantities of corn, cotton, and indigo. All ſorts of cattle, wild beaſts, honey, wax, and fowl, are here in great plenty; and on the coaſt are found large pieces of amber: but as no mines were ever diſcovered in this country,

country, the Spaniards are not fond of making ſettlements here; ſo that it abounds moſtly with Indians ſubject to the Spaniards, who employ them in making ſalt in the bay of Campeachy, where they are forced to endure all the extremities of the weather, without ſo much as a hut to ſhelter them: they likewiſe keep their cattle, and do every other ſervile office for them. This peninſula has very few rivers, but wells without number; and wherefoever they dig up the land, abundance of ſhells are found, which, with the lowneſs of the country, and ſhallowneſs of the ſea about it, has induced many to think that the greateſt part of it was once under water.

The Spaniards tell us, that when they firſt came into this country, they found ſome ſhadow of baptiſm, which the natives called a ſecond birth; and looked upon it as the ground-work of all goodneſs and a ſecurity againſt all the ſnares of evil ſpirits. The age for this ceremony was betwixt three and twelve; and none but the baptized were allowed to marry.

The capital of Jucatan is Campeachy; in the bay of which, and of Honduras, the former lying on the W. and the latter on the E. ſide of this province, the Engliſh cut their logwood. See CAMPEACHY and HONDURAS.

JULIAN. ST. an harbour on the coaſt of Patagonia, in South America, where ſhips bound to the Pacific Ocean uſually touch for refreſhment. Lat. 48. 51. S. long. 65. 10. W.

KAP-

K.

KAPPAS, a ſavage tribe of Illinois Indians, in Louiſiana: they lie a little above the Sothouis. This nation was formerly very numerous, before the diſcovery of the Miſſiſſippi. Oppoſite to their village are the melancholy wrecks of Mr. Law's grant, of which the French company are proprietaries. To this ſettlement nine thouſand Palatines were intended to have been ſent. There is not, perhaps, in all Louiſiana, a country more proper for producing all ſorts of grain; and it abounds in paſture for cattle: but Mr. Law, as well as the greateſt part of the other grantees, were badly ſerved.

KATHERINE, ST. an iſland of the Brazils, in South America, reckoned by the natives to be no where above two leagues in breadth, though about nine in length. It extends from lat. 27. 35. to 28. S. and long. 49. 45. W. of London. Though it be of a conſiderable height, yet it is ſcarcely diſcernible at the diſtance of ten leagues, being then obſcured under the continent of Brazil, whoſe mountains are exceeding high: but on a nearer approach, it is eaſy to be diſtinguiſhed, and may be readily known by a number of ſmall iſlands lying at each end, and ſcattered along its E. ſide.

The beſt entrance to the harbour is between the N. E. point and the ſmall iſland of Alvoredo, where ſhips may paſs under the guidance of their lead, without the leaſt apprehenſions of danger.

The north entrance of the harbour is in breadth about five miles; and the diſtance from thence

thence to the iſland of St. Antonio, is eight miles; and the courſe from the entrance to St. Antonio, is S. S. W. half W. About the middle of the iſland the harbour is contracted by two points of land, to a narrow channel, no more than a quarter of a mile broad, and only two fathom water; being navigable but for barks and boats, though it is defended by a battery on the point of land, on the iſland ſide, and three other forts are carrying on for the ſecurity of the harbour. The firſt, called St. Juan, is built on a point of St. Katherine, near Parrot iſland; the ſecond, in form of a half moon, on the iſland of St. Antonio; and the third, which has ſome appearance of a regular fortification, is on an iſland near the continent, where the governor reſides.

The ſoil of this iſland is truly luxuriant, producing fruits of moſt kinds ſpontaneouſly, and the ground is covered over with one continued foreſt of trees, of a perpetual verdure, which, from the exuberance of the ſoil, are ſo entangled with briars, thorns, and underwood, as to form a thicket abſolutely impenetrable, except by ſome narrow pathways which the inhabitants have made. Theſe, with a few ſpots cleared for plantations along the ſhore facing the continent, are the only uncovered parts of the iſland. The woods are extremely fragrant, from the many aromatic ſhrubs and trees with which they abound: and the fruits and vegetables of all climates thrive here, almoſt without culture, and are to be procured in great plenty; ſo that here is no want of pine-apples, peaches, grapes, oranges, lemons, citrons, melons, apricots, nor plantains.

There

There are, beſides, great abundance of onions and potatoes. The proviſions of other kinds are, however, inferior to their vegetables. There are ſmall wild cattle to be purchaſed, ſomewhat like buffaloes; but theſe are very indifferent food, their fleſh being of a looſe texture, and generally of a diſagreeable flavour, probably owing to the wild calabaſh on which they feed. There is likewiſe great plenty of pheaſants, but much inferior to thoſe in England. The other proviſions of the place are monkies, parrots, and fiſh of various ſorts, which abound in the harbour, and are all exceeding good, and eaſily catched; there being a great number of ſmall ſandy bays very convenient for drawing a net.

The water, both on the iſland and the oppoſite continent is excellent, and preſerves at ſea as well as that of the Thames; for after it has been in the caſk a day or two, it begins to purge itſelf, and ſtinks moſt intolerably, and is ſoon covered over with a green ſcum; but this in a few days ſubſides to the bottom, and leaves the water as clear as cryſtal, and perfectly ſweet.

There are many inconveniencies attending the iſland of St. Katherine, partly from its climate, but more from its new regulations, and the late form of government eſtabliſhed there. With regard to the climate, the woods and hills which ſurround the harbour, prevent a free circulation of the air; and the vigorous vegetation which conſtantly takes place there, furniſhes ſuch a prodigious quantity of vapour, that all the night and a great part of the morning, a thick fog covers the whole country, till diſſipated by the ſun, or diſperſed by a briſk ſea breeze.

breeze. This renders the place close and humid, and probably occasioned the many fevers and fluxes commodore Anson's squadron were there afflicted with.

To these exceptions must be added, that all the day they are pestered with great numbers of moschetoes, not much unlike the gnats in England, but more venomous in their stings: and at sun-set, when the moschetoes retire, they are succeeded by an infinity of sand-flies, which, though scarcely discernible to the naked eye, make a mighty buzzing; and wherever they bite, raise a small lump in the flesh, which is soon attended with a painful itching, like that arising from the bite of an English harvest bug.

KICAPOUS, a savage people of Canada, in North America, who, with the Masiontins, inhabit a very fine country, especially that which extends itself S. to the Illinois river.

KING'S, or PEARL-ISLAND, a small island in the bay of Panama, in South America: it belongs to Spain, and is famous for its pearl fishery, and lies in lat. 7. 12. N. long. 81. 36. W.

KILLISTINONS, a people of Canada, in North America, otherwise called Cristinaux, or Creeks.

KING WILLIAM'S-ISLAND, a denomination given by Dampier to an island of New Guinea. It lies in lat. 21. min. S. is about two leagues and an half in length, very high, and extremely well covered with woods. The trees are of different sorts, most of them unknown to Europeans; but all very green and flourishing: many of them had blossoms, and of various colours, diffusing a very fragrant smell.

The

The captain ſaw one of a ſmooth body, without knot or limb, about 60 or 70 fathom high: it was three of his fathoms round, and kept its magnitude, without any ſenſible diminution to the top.

The mould of this iſland is black, but not deep, it being very rocky. On the ridge and top of the iſland there are many palmetto trees, whoſe heads the captain could diſcover above all the reſt; but he could not ſee their bodies.

KING'S-COUNTY, in New York, N. America, lies oppoſite to New York, on the N. ſide of Long-iſland. The inhabitants are all Dutch, and having a good ſoil near our markets, are generally in eaſy circumſtances. The country, which is very ſmall, is fertile in every part, and contains ſeveral pleaſant villages.

KINGSTON, a pretty well built and populous town, in the province of New York, ſituated on the banks of Hudſon's, or Iroquois river, about ninety miles from its mouth. It is inhabited by Engliſh and Dutch, but the houſes are ſtraggling, except about a hundred that are pretty compact; and theſe indeed are the chief part of the town. The river Œſopus from New Jerſey falls into Hudſon's river, near the town, by means of which there is a good communication between the two provinces.

KINGSTON, a town of Jamaica, one of the Antilles iſlands in the Weſt Indies. It ſtands on the N. ſide of Port Royal bay, and is now the capital of the iſland; at leaſt the place where moſt of the ſhipping of Jamaica load and unload: it is at preſent a ſeparate pariſh of itſelf, but formerly belonged to that of St. Andrews: it

it is about five miles from Port Royal by water, but not less than 15 by land, and withal a very bad road to it. All the way round by land from Spanish Town, on the N. W. it is 19 miles, and only 12 another way; namely, six by water, and six more by land.

This town was built in 1692, from a plan of colonel Lilly's, after the great earthquake which destroyed Port-royal. It has the harbour of the latter place on the S. W. and Sir William Beeston's lands on the W. and N. This is a pretty town, containing 11 or 1200 houses, well situated, and daily increasing. It is laid out into little squares, with wide regular streets and cross streets at right angles; being intended to be a mile long, and half a mile broad. It is the residence of the most considerable merchants, whose ships load and unload here: this renders it a place of vast trade; and there are never less than 2 or 300 vessels in the bay before it, insomuch that it almost vies with Port Royal. The harbour is spacious, and the ships lie land locked: but the peninsula which covers them from the sea being low and narrow, they are not altogether safe from storms. It musters 10 companies of foot, and two troops of horse, being in all about eleven hundred men. Here is one church, two Jewish synagogues, and a quaker's meeting-house. It sends three representatives to the assembly. Here are held the quarter sessions, besides a court of common-pleas every two months, and a receiver general, naval officer, secretary, and surveyor of the island, are obliged to keep offices here. Lat. 17. 40. N. long. 75. 52. W.

LABRA-

L.

LABRADOR, TERRA DE, one of the northern countries of America, called alſo NEW BRITAIN and ESKIMAUX. It lies to the S. W. of Groenland. It has Hudſon's Streights and part of the Atlantic Ocean on the N. E. and the latter alſo on the E. On the S. E. it is divided from Newfoundland by the ſtreights of Belleiſle, on the S. it has the gulph and river of St. Laurence, with part of Canada; and on the W. Hudſon's Bay. It extends from lat. 50. to 63. N. and from long. 51. to 79. W. It is almoſt of a triangular form, but we have no knowledge of the inland parts of the country, and only an imperfect one of the coaſt. The great poverty and ferocity of the people who live near the ſea ſhore, with the exceſſive coldneſs of the climate, have deterred Europeans from ſettling any colonies here. The natives hunt for furs, in which they carry on a traffic with the Europeans. This, with the coaſt on Hudſon's Bay, and the neighbouring country, was ceded by France to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713.

Among all the people known in America, none are ſo conformable to the idea conveyed by the word ſavages as the Eſkimaux, who are, in all reſpects, a very brutal people. See ESKIMAUX.

LABRADOR-LAKES, the name of ſeveral collections of water in Cape-Breton, which empty themſelves eaſtward into the ſea, by two channels of unequal breadth, formed by the iſle of Verderonne, or la Boularderie, which is about ſeven or eight leagues long.

LAM-

LAMBAYEQUE, a town on the road from Guayaquil to Lima, in Peru. It consists of about 1500 houses, built of different materials; but in general of bajareques, or unburnt bricks: some are of cane, plaistered over with clay both on the inside and outside. The meanest among them, which are the habitations of the Indians, consist entirely of cane. The number of its inhabitants amounts to about 3000, of which there are some very considerable and opulent families: but the generality are poor Spaniards, Mulattoes, Mestizoes, and Indians. The parochial church is built of stone, large, and beautiful, and the ornaments of it very splendid. It has four chapels called Ramos, with an equal number of priests, who take care of the spiritual concerns of the Indians, and also attend by turns on the inhabitants.

This town was not very populous before the families which inhabited the city of Sana removed hither, on its being sacked by Edward Davis, an English adventurer, who carried away every thing valuable, and what remained was swept away by a sudden inundation of the river of the same name.

Lambayeque is now the residence of a corregidor, having under his jurisdiction, besides many other towns, that of Morrope. One of the two officers of the revenue appointed for Truxillo, also resides here. The walls of the place are washed by a river of the same name; and when the waters are high, is crossed over a wooden bridge: but it is generally forded, and is sometimes quite dry.

The neighbourhood of the Lambayeque, as far as the industry of its inhabitants has improved

proved it, by canals cut from the river, abounds in ſeveral kinds of vegetables and fruits; ſome of the ſame kind with thoſe known in Europe, and others of the Creole kind, being European fruits planted there; but undergone conſiderable alterations from the nature of the climate.

About 10 leagues from it, are eſpaliers of vines, from the grapes of which they make wine; but neither ſo good, nor in ſuch plenty, as in other parts of Peru. Many of the poor people here employ themſelves in cotton works; as embroidered handkerchiefs, quilts, mantelets, and the like.

Lambayeque lies four leagues from Morrope, in lat. 6. 41. 37. S. long. 76. 15. W.

LAMPA, a juriſdiction of Cuſco, in Peru, S. America. It begins about 30 leagues S. of the city of Cuſco, and is the principal province among thoſe included under the name of Callao. Its plains are interrupted with ſmall hills; but both abound in good paſture: and accordingly this province is in particular remarkable for its quantity of cattle, with which it carries on a very profitable trade: but the air being every where cold, the only fruits are papas and quineas. Another very important advantage is, its ſilver mines, which are very rich, and conſtantly worked.

LANCASTER BAY, a ſound or inlet on the weſtern coaſt of Sir Thomas Smith's Bay. The furthermoſt part lies in lat. 74. 20. N. the moſt northerly is called Alderman Jonas's ſound, and lies in lat. 76. N.

LAPIS LAZULI ROCK, a ſmall rocky iſland, almoſt covered with the ſea, near the coaſt of Nova-Scotia. It lies about three fourths of a

 league

league from the isle Monano, and shews the passage into St. John's river, on the north side of Fundy-bay, and La Plate.

LARICAXAS, a province of La Paz, and audience of Charcas, in Peru. It lies adjacent to the territories of the jurisdiction of La Paz, and to the N. of that city, extending 118 leagues from E. to W. and about 30. from N. to S. The temperature of the air is different in different parts; and some of its productions are the same with those of Carabaya, on which it borders to the northward.

The whole province abounds in gold mines, the metal of which is of so fine a quality, that its standard is 23 carats, and three grains.

In this province is the celebrated mountain of Sunchuli, where, about 56 years ago, was discovered a gold mine, remarkably rich, and of the standard above-mentioned. But when in its highest prosperity, it was unfortunately overflowed; and notwithstanding prodigious sums were expended in endeavouring to drain it, all the labour and charges were thrown away, the works being injudiciously carried on.

LATACUNGA, ASSIENTO OF, the first jurisdiction to the southward of that of Quito, in Peru.

The word assiento implies, a place less than a town, but larger than a village. It stands in a wide plain, having on its east side the eastern cordillera of the Andes, from which projects a very high mountain; and at a small distance from its foot is situated Latacunga, in lat. 55. min. 14 sec. 30-thirds S. On its W. side is a river; which, though sometimes fordable, upon any

any increaſe of the waters, muſt be paſſed over the bridge.

This aſſiento is large and regular, the ſtreets broad and ſtrait, the houſes of ſtone, arched, and well contrived; but by reaſon of the dangerous conſequences ſo often reſulting from earthquakes, they are without any ſtory. This precaution the inhabitants were taught to obſerve by a dreadful deſtruction of all the buildings, on the 20th of June, 1699. This concuſſion was general over all the province of Quito; and its effects, in many other places, equally melancholy. Out of 600 ſtone houſes, the number of which this aſſiento then conſiſted, only a part of one, and the jeſuits church, were left ſtanding; and even theſe were ſo greatly ſhattered, that there was a neceſſity for pulling them down. But the greateſt misfortune was, that moſt of the inhabitants were buried under their ruins; the earthquake beginning at one in the morning, a time of univerſal ſilence and ſecrecy, and continued its concuſſions, at ſhort intervals, for the greateſt part of the day.

The ſtone of which the houſes and churches are built, is a kind of pumice, or ſpongy ſtone, ejected from volcanoes, which have formed inexhauſtible quarries in the neighbourhood. It is ſo light, that it will ſwim in water, and from its great poroſity, the lime cements the different pieces very ſtrongly together: for which reaſon, and from their lowneſs, the houſes are now able to ſupport themſelves, during a concuſſion, much better than before that earthquake, when few of them were without a ſtory: and

ſhould they happen to be thrown down, the craſh, in all probability, would be much leſs fatal.

This juriſdiction contains 17 principal villages. The air of the aſſiento is the colder from the place being only ſix leagues from the mountain of Cotopaxi; which, as it is not leſs in height or extent than thoſe of Chimborazo and Cayamburo, ſo, like them, it is covered with ice and ſnow. The combuſtible ſubſtances within the bowels of this mountain firſt declared themſelves in 1533, when Sebaſtian and Belaleazar, who undertook the conqueſt of this province had entered it, and proved very favourable to the enterprize: for the Indians, poſſeſſed with the truth of a prediction of their prieſts, that on the burſting of this volcano, and the invaſion of a foreign army, they would be deprived of their country, and reduced under the government of an unknown prince, were ſo ſtruck with the concurrence of the burſting of the volcano, and the invaſion of a foreign army, that the ſpirit which univerſally began to ſhew itſelf in the preparations every where made for a vigorous reſiſtance, entirely left them, and the whole province was eaſily conquered; all its caciques ſubmitting to the king of Spain.

The large plain in which the aſſiento ſtands, is full of fragments of rocks, ejected at the ſuppoſed ominous eruption; and ſome of them to the diſtance of five leages from its foot. A ſecond, but leſs dreadful eruption, happened in the year 1743.

The temperature of the air is very different in the ſeveral villages of this juriſdiction; being hot in thoſe which lie in the valleys, temperate in ſuch as are ſituated on the plains: whilſt the

the air in those which border on the mountains, like that of the assiento, is cold, and sometimes to an excessive degree. The villages are in general larger and more populous than those of the other jurisdictions in the same province: their inhabitants are Indians, Mestizoes, and some few Spaniards.

Besides the parochial church, which is served by two priests, one for the Spaniards, and the other for the Indians, this assiento has convents of Franciscans, Augustines, Dominicans, the Fathers of Mercy, and a college of Jesuits.

The churches of these religious are well built, decently ornamented, and kept very neat. The inhabitants, by the nearest computation, amount to between 10 and 12000, chiefly Spaniards and Mestizoes. Among the former are several families of eminent rank and easy circumstances. The Indians live in a separate quarter, contiguous to the country.

In this assiento all kinds of trades and mechanic arts are carried on; and, as in all the other parts of its jurisdiction, it has a considerable number of manufactories of cloth, bays, and tucuyos.

Great quantities of pork are salted here for sending to Quito, Guayaquil, and Riobamba, being highly valued for the peculiar flavour given it in the pickling.

All the neighbouring country is sown with clover, and interspersed with plantations of willows, the perpetual verdure of which gives a chearful aspect to the country, and heightens the pleasantness of the assiento.

The inhabitants of Pugili, and Saquisili, are noted for making earthen ware; as jars, pans,

pitchers, &c. which are greatly valued all over the province of Quito. The clay of which they are made is of a lively red, remarkably fine, emitting a kind of fragrancy, and the workmanship very neat and ingenious.

LEMAIRE, see MAIRE STREIGHT.

LEON, a town of the province of Panuco, in Mexico. It has rich mines, and lies 30 leagues N. of Mechoacan, and 55 N. W. of the city of Mexico.

LEWIS, the principal town of Suſſex, one of the lower counties of Penſylvania, in North America. It is large and handſome, and ſituated on the beautiful bank of a river, the mouth of which forms the harbour. Before Lewis is Cape Hinlopen, or Cape William; and 20 miles below that, Cape James, the furthermoſt boundary of Penſylvania.

LEWISBURG. See LOUISBOURG.

LEWIS, the chief port of Granada, one of the Carribbee iſlands in the Weſt Indies, and belonging to Great Britain. It ſtands in the middle of a large bay on the W. ſide of the iſland, with a ſandy bottom, where a thouſand ſhips, from 3 to 400 tons may ride ſafe from ſtorms. The harbour is remarkably capacious, being ſufficient for 100 ſail of 1000 tons to moor in. Near the harbour is a large round baſon, parted from it by a ſand-bank, which, if cut, would be capable of holding a very great number of veſſels: but by reaſon of this bank, great ſhips are obliged to paſs within 80 paces of one of the two little mountains which are at the mouth of the harbour, and about half a mile aſunder. Upon one of theſe a fort has been erected by a French engineer, with a

half

half moon in front, and other regular works, all of good ſtone. The fort between the harbour and the baſon is of wood, 25 feet ſquare, and encompaſſed with a ſtrong paliſadoe of entire trees. At the two corners towards the ſea are two little wooden pavilions, in one of which the commander reſides. M. Parquet, its firſt proprietor, lived in a great wilderneſs encompaſſing the mountain, near the harbour, at the foot of which are magazines built of bricks and timber. The church, which is near the fort, is built of canes laid upon forks, and the inſide has the ſame mean appearance. In Parquet's time, at every 6th cottage there was a little ſentry-box erected, two ſtories high, to which the inhabitants of every ſix habitations retired in the night, to prevent their being ſurpriſed by the ſavages.

LIMA, the capital of Peru, in South America. It is alſo called Los Reyes, or the city of the kings, and is ſtill the emporium of this part of the world. The following account of this famous city was written before the dreadful earthquake, which happened on the 28th of October, 1746.

The city of Lima was founded by Don Franciſco Pizarro on the 18th of January 1535. Its ſite is in the ſpacious and delightful valley of Rimac, the true name of the city itſelf, the name of Lima being only a corrupt pronunciation of that Indian word; and accordingly both the valley and river ſtill retain the name of Rimac, which is derived from an idol to which the Indians and their Yncas uſed to ſacrifice. This idol being ſuppoſed to return anſwers to the prayers offered it, they called

it, by way of diſtinction, Rimac, i. e. the ſpeaker.

Lima, according to ſeveral obſervations made for that purpoſe, ſtands in lat. 12. 2. 31. S. and its long. is 75. 52. W. The variation of the needle is 9. 2. 30. eaſterly.

Its ſituation is one of the moſt advantageous that can be imagined; for, being in the centre of that ſpacious valley, it commands the whole without any difficulty. To the northward, at a conſiderable diſtance, is the cordillera, or chain of the Andes, whence ſome hills project into the valley; the neareſt of which to the city are thoſe of St. Chriſtopher and Amancaes. The perpendicular height of the former, according to a geometrical menſuration by Don Juan, and M. de la Condamine, in the year 1737, is 134 toiſes: but father Feuillee makes it 136 toiſes and one foot, which difference doubtleſs ariſes from not having meaſured with equal preciſion the baſe on which both founded their calculations.

The height of the Amancaes is little leſs than the former, and ſtands about a quarter of a league from the city.

The river of the ſame name, flows by the walls of Lima; and when not increaſed by the torrents from the mountains, is eaſily fordable: but at other times, beſides the increaſe of its breadth, its depth and rapidity render fording impoſſible; and accordingly a very elegant and ſpacious ſtone bridge has been built over it, having at one end a gate, the beautiful architecture of which is equal to the other parts of this uſeful ſtructure. This gate forms the entrance into the city, and leads to the

grand

grand ſquare, which is very large, and finely ornamented. In the center is a fountain equally remarkable for its grandeur and capacity. In the middle of it is a brazen ſtatue of Fame, and on the four right angles are four ſmall baſons. The water is thrown out through the trumpet of the ſtatue, and likewiſe through the mouths of eight lions, which ſurround it, tending greatly to heighten the beauty of the whole work. The eaſt ſide of the ſquare is filled by the cathedral and the archiepiſcopal palace, higher than any other building in the city. Its principal foundations and the baſes of its columns and pilaſters, together with the capital front facing the weſt, are of free-ſtone: the inſide reſembles that of the cathedral of Seville, but is not ſo large: the outſide is adorned with a very magnificent frontiſpiece, riſing into two lofty towers; and in the center is the grand portal: round the whole runs a grand gallery, with a wooden baluſtrade, reſembling braſs in colour, and at proper diſtances are ſeveral pyramids, which greatly augment the magnificence of the ſtructure. In the north ſide of the ſquare is the viceroy's palace, in which are the ſeveral courts of juſtice, together with the offices of the revenue, and the ſtate priſon. This was formerly a very remarkable building, both with regard to its largeneſs and architecture; but the greateſt part of it being thrown down by the dreadful earthquake with which this city was viſited on the 20th of October, 1687, it now conſiſts only of ſome of the lower apartments erected on a terrace, and which are the reſidence of the viceroy and his family.

On the W. ſide, which faces the cathedral, is the council-houſe, and the city priſon. The

ſouth ſide is filled with private houſes, which, like the former, have only a ſingle ſtory: but the fronts being of ſtone, their uniformity, porticos, and elegance, are a great embelliſhment to the ſquare, each ſide of which is 80 toiſes.

The form of the city is triangular; the baſe, or longeſt ſide, extending along the banks of the river. Its length is 1920 toiſes, or exactly two thirds of a league: its greateſt breadth from N. to S. that is, from the bridge to the angle oppoſite to the baſe, is 180 toiſes, or two fifths of a league. It is ſurrounded with a brick wall, which anſwers its original intention; but is without any manner of regularity. This work was begun and finiſhed in the year 1385: it is flanked with 34 baſtions, but without any platforms or embrazures; it being intended only to incloſe the city, and render it capable of ſuſtaining any ſudden attack of the Indians. It has in its whole circuit ſeven gates and three poſterns.

On the ſide of the river, oppoſite to the city, is a ſuburb, called St. Lazaro, which has of late greatly increaſed. All the ſtreets of this ſuburb, like thoſe of the city, are broad, parallel, or at right angles; ſome running from N. to S. and others from E. to W. forming ſquares of houſes, each 150 yards in front, the uſual dimenſions of all theſe ſquares in this country, whereas thoſe of Quito are only 100. The ſtreets are paved, and along them run ſtreams of water, conducted from the river a little above the city; and being arched over, contribute greatly to its cleanlineſs, without the leaſt inconveniency.

The houſes, though moſtly low, are com-

modious, and make a good appearance: they are all of canes and clay: they indeed appear to be compoſed of more ſolid materials, both with regard to the thickneſs of the principal walls, and the imitation of corniſhes on them. And that they may the better ſupport themſelves under the ſhocks of earthquakes, of which this city has had ſo many dreadful inſtances, the principal parts are of wood, mortiſed into the rafters of the roof; and thoſe which ſerve for walls, are lined both inſide and outſide, with wild canes and oſiers, ſo that the timber work is entirely incloſed. Theſe oſiers are plaiſtered over with clay, and white-waſhed, but the fronts are painted in imitation of freeſtone: they afterwards add cornices and porticos, which are alſo painted of the ſame ſtone colour. The roofs are flat, and covered only ſo far as is neceſſary to keep out the wind and intercept the rays of the ſun. The pieces of timber of which the roofs are formed, and which on the inſide are decorated with elegant mouldings, and other ornaments, are covered with clay to preſerve them from the ſun: and this ſlender covering is ſufficient, as no violent rains are ever known here. Thus the houſes are in leſs danger than if built of more compact materials; for the whole building yields to the motion of the earthquakes; and the foundations, which are connected with the ſeveral parts of the building, follow the ſame motion: ſo that by yielding to the concuſſion, though they may be damaged, they are not ſo eaſily thrown down.

The wild canes, which ſerve for the innermoſt part of the walls, reſemble in length and bigneſs thoſe known in Europe, but are with-

out any cavity; the wood of them being very ſolid and little ſubject to rot. The bajuco is alſo a kind of plant, growing wild in the foreſts, and on the banks of rivers: it is ſtrong and flexible.

Towards the E. and W. parts of the city, but within the walls, are a great many fruit and kitchen gardens; and moſt of the public houſes have gardens for entertainments, being continually refreſhed with water, by means of the canals.

The whole city is divided into five pariſhes; namely, Sagrario, St. Anne, St. Sebaſtian, St. Marcello, and St. Lazaro. The latter extends itſelf five leagues to the valley of Carabaillo, ſo that the many large plantations in that ſpace belong to it: chapels are therefore erected for celebrating maſs, that the people may perform their duty without the fatigue and trouble of travelling to Lima. Here are alſo two chapels of eaſe, that of St. Salvador in the pariſh of St. Anne, and that of the orphans in the Sagrario. There is alſo in the Circado, one of the quarters of the town, a pariſh of Indians, under the inſpection of the Jeſuits.

The convents are very numerous, there being four of Dominicans, one of which, the college of St. Thomas, is appropriated to literature; three of Franciſcans, one in the ſuburb of San Lazaro; three of Auguſtines, one a literary college, and another a noviciate; three belong to the order of Mercy, among which is a college.

The Jeſuits have ſix houſes; namely, St. Paul, their principal college, St. Martin, for ſecular ſtudents, St. Anthony, a noviciate, the houſe of poſſeſſion under the invocation of Nueſtra

Senora de los Dolores, a college in the Circado, where the Indians are instructed in the precepts of religion, and that of the Chacarilla, appointed for the exercises of St. Ignatius, where all seculars desirous of performing them, are admitted. They are also allowed the liberty of beginning when most convenient for themselves, and are handsomely entertained by the college, during the eight days of their continuance. But it must be observed, that of all these convents the casas grandes are now the most considerable; all the others besides being small, have but few members, and small revenues.

Besides the preceding nineteen convents and colleges, here are also an oratory of St. Philip Neri, a monastery of the order of St. Benedict, and a convent of the order of Agonizantes. In the suburb of San Lazaro, is a convent of St. Francis de Paula, a modern foundation.

There are also in Lima three other charitable foundations; namely, St. Juan de Dios, for the relief of persons recovering from sickness, and two of Bethlemites; one without the city, founded for the relief of sick Indians, and the other within the city, called that of the incurables, being appropriated to persons who labour under diseases of that kind.

This opulent city has also nine other hospitals, each appropriated to some peculiar charity; as for Spaniards only, poor ecclesiastics, mariners, negroes, Indians, women, and lepers.

Here are also 14 nunneries, the number of people in which would be sufficient to people a small town. The five first are regulars, and the other nine recolets.

Lastly,

Laſtly, here are four other conventual houſes, where ſome few of the ſiſters are not recluſes, though moſt of them obſerve that rule: that of San Joſeph among theſe, is a retreat for women who deſire to be divorced from their huſbands. To theſe muſt alſo be added, a houſe conſtituted in the manner of convents, for poor women, with an eccleſiaſtic, who is their chaplain.

Here is alſo an orphan-houſe, divided into two colleges, the one for boys, and the other for girls; beſides ſeveral chapels in different parts of the city, which was always equally conſpicuous for its zeal for religion, and its remarkable ſplendor.

All the churches, both conventual and parochial, as alſo the chapels, are large, and conſtructed partly of ſtone, and adorned with paintings and other decorations of great value; particularly the cathedral, the churches of St. Dominic, St. Francis, St. Auguſtine, the Fathers of Mercy, and that of the Jeſuits, are ſo ſplendidly adorned, as to ſurpaſs deſcription; an idea of it being only to be obtained from the ſight. The riches and pomp of this city, eſpecially on ſolemn feſtivals, is aſtoniſhing. The altars, from their very baſes to the borders of the paintings, are covered with maſſive ſilver, wrought into various ornaments. The walls of the churches are alſo hung with velvet, or tapeſtry of equal value, adorned with gold and ſilver fringes: all which, in this country, is remarkably dear: and on theſe are ſuſpended pieces of plate in various figures. If the eye be directed from the pillars, the walls, and the cieling to the lower part of the church, it is

equally

equally dazzled with glittering objects presenting themselves on all sides: among which are candlesticks of massive silver, six or seven feet high, placed in two rows along the nave of the church; embossed tables of the same metal, supporting smaller candlestics; and in the intervals between them, pedestals, on which stand the statues of angels. In fine, the whole church is covered with plate, or something equal to it in value; so that divine service in these churches is performed with a magnificence scarcely to be imagined: and the ornaments, even on common days, with regard to their quantity of riches, exceed those which many cities of Europe pride themselves with displaying on the most solemn occasions.

If such immense riches be bestowed on the body of the church, how can imagination itself form an idea of those more immediately used in divine worship, such as the sacred vessels, the chalices, ostensoria, &c. in the richness of which there is a sort of emulation between the several churches. In these the gold is covered with diamonds, pearls, and gems, so as to dazzle the eye of the spectator. The gold and silver stuffs for vestments and other decorations, are always of the richest and most valuable among those brought over by the register ships; as are also the fringes, laces, &c. In fine, whatever is employed in decorating the churches, is always the richest of the kind that can possibly be procured.

The principal convents are very large, with convenient and airy apartments. Some parts of them, as the outward walls which inclose them, are of unburnt bricks; but the building itself

itſelf of quinchas, or baxareques. The roofs of many of the churches are arched with bricks, others only with quinchas; but of ſuch curious architecture, as entirely to conceal the materials: ſo that the frontiſpieces of principal gates have a majeſtic aſpect. The columns, frizes, ſtatues, and cornices, are of wood, finely carved; but ſo nearly imitating the colour and appearance of ſtone, as only to be known by the touch. This ingenious imitation does not proceed from parſimony, but neceſſarily, in order to avoid as much as poſſible the dreadful devaſtation of earthquakes, which will not admit of ſtructures built with ponderous materials.

The churches are decorated with ſmall cupolas of a very pretty appearance; and though they are all of wood, the ſight cannot diſtinguiſh them from ſtone. From the foundation the towers are of ſtone, for the height of a toiſe and a half, or two toiſes; and from thence to the roof of the church, of brick; but the remainder is of wood painted of a free-ſtone colour, terminating in a ſtatue, or image, alluding to the name of the church. The height of theſe may be nearly known from that of St. Dominic, which, by a geometrical menſuration, was found to be between 50 and 60 yards; a height, which though ſmall in proportion to the largeneſs of the ſtructure, is a neceſſary caution both with regard to the ſhocks of earthquakes, and the weight of the bells, which in ſize and number exceed thoſe in Spain; and on a general ringing produce a very agreeable harmony.

All the convents are furniſhed with water from the city, though not from that of the rivulets

vulets which run through the ſtreets in covered channels; but brought from a ſpring by means of pipes: while, on the other hand, both the monaſteries and nunneries are each obliged to maintain a fountain in the ſtreet, for the public uſe of poor people, who have not the conveniency of water in their houſes.

The viceroy, whoſe power extends over all Peru, uſually reſides at Lima. But the province and audience of Quito have been lately diſmembered from it.

This government is only triennial; though at the expiration of that term, the ſovereign may prolong it. This office is of ſuch importance, that the viceroy enjoys all the privileges of royalty. He is abſolute in all affairs, whether political, military, civil, criminal, or relating to the revenue; having offices and tribunals under him, for executing the ſeveral branches of government: ſo that the grandeur of this poſt is in every particular equal to the title. For the ſafety of his perſon, and to maintain the dignity of his office, he has two bodies of guards; one of horſe, conſiſting of 160 private men, a captain, and a lieutenant: their uniform is blue, turned up with red, and laced with ſilver. This troop conſiſts entirely of picked men, and all Spaniards. The captain's poſt is eſteemed very honourable. Theſe do duty at the principal gate of the palace; and when the viceroy goes abroad, he is attended by a piquet guard, conſiſting of eight of theſe troopers. The ſecond is that of the halbardiers, conſiſting of 50 men, who are likewiſe all Spaniards, dreſſed in blue uniform and crimſon velvet waiſtcoats, laced with gold.

Theſe

Thefe do duty in the rooms leading to the chamber of audience, and private apartments. They alfo attend the viceroy when he appears in public, or vifits the officers and the tribunals. The only officer of this body is a captain, whofe poft is alfo reckoned very eminent. Both captains are nominated by the viceroy: befides thefe, there is another guard within the palace, confifting of 100 men, a captain, lieutenant, and fub-lieutenant, being a detachment from the garrifon of Callao. Thefe are occafionally employed in executing the governor's orders, and the decrees of the tribunals, after they have received the fanction of his affent.

The viceroy, befides affifting at the courts of juftice, and the councils relating both to the finances and war, gives every day public audience to all forts of perfons: for which purpofe there are in the palace three very grand and fpacious rooms. In the firft, which is adorned with the portraits of all the viceroys, he receives the Indians and other cafts: in the fecond, he gives audience to the Spaniards: and in the third, where, under a rich canopy, are placed pictures of the king and queen then reigning, he receives thofe ladies who defire to fpeak to him in private, without being known.

The affairs relating to the government are expedited by a fecretary of ftate, with an affiftant properly qualified for fuch an arduous poft. From this office are iffued the orders for paffports which muft be had from every corregidor in his jurifdiction. The fecretary has alfo the power of filling all juridical employments as they become vacant, for the term of two years; as alfo thofe of the magiftracy, who at the expiration

piration of their term, have not been replaced by others of his majesty's nomination. In a word, this office may be said to be the channel by which all affairs relating both to war and government are transacted.

All causes relating to justice are tried in the court of audience, from the decrees of which there is no appeal to the supreme council of the Indies, unless after notorious injustice, or a second trial, as the viceroy himself presides in it. This is the principal court of Lima, and is held in the viceroy's palace in the three saloons appropriated to it. In one they hold deliberations, and in the other two the causes are tried, either publicly, or privately: criminal causes are tried in a fourth apartment.

Next to the tribunal of audience is the chamber of accounts: here all public acts of the revenue are passed: here also the distribution and management of the royal revenue are regulated.

Lastly, the royal treasury, the officers of which have the superintendance of all the king's revenue of what kind soever in most parts of the kingdom.

The corporation of Lima consists of regidors or aldermen, a sheriff, and two royal judges, all noblemen of the first distinction. These have the direction of the police, and the ordinary administration of justice.

The next tribunal is that of commerce, in which all mercantile disputes and processes are decided.

Lima has also a corregidor, whose jurisdiction extends to all Indians, both within the city and five leagues round it.

The cathedral chapter, besides the archbishop, con-

ſiſts of five dignitaries, &c. His ſuffragans are the biſhops of Panama, Quito, Truxillo, Guamanga, Arequipa, Cuſco, St. Jago, and Conception: the two laſt are in the kingdom of Chili.

Here are alſo tribunals of inquiſition and cruſado.

Laſtly, here is a mint, where the gold and ſilver are coined.

In the univerſity and colleges the happy genius of the natives is improved by divine and human learning, and the ſtudents ſoon give elegant ſpecimens of their future acquiſitions. They are in this much more indebted to nature than to art or application.

The principal of theſe ſeminaries is the univerſity of St. Mark, with the colleges of St. Toribio, St. Martin, and St. Philip. In the former are chairs for all the ſciences, ſome of the profeſſors of which have gained the applauſe of the literati of Europe.

The univerſity makes a ſtately appearance, and its inſide is ſuitably decorated. It has a large ſquare court with a vaulted piazza round it: along the ſides are the halls for lectures, and in one of the angles is the public theatre, adorned with the portraits of the great men educated here, in frames of fine ſculpture, and richly gilt, &c.

The magnificence of the inhabitants of Lima on public ſolemnities is diſplayed with a peculiar dignity; ſo that among all thoſe obſerved in America, the public entrance of the viceroy is the moſt ſplendid, and in which the amazing pomp of Lima is particularly diſplayed.

Nothing

Nothing is ſeen but rich coaches and calaſhes, laces, jewels, and ſplendid equipage, in which the nobility carry their emulation to an aſtoniſhing height.

Beſides the ceremony of this public entry, attended by the ſeveral bodies of the city, civil and eccleſiaſtic, in a very grand proceſſion, and very ſumptuous collations, &c. there are alſo other ſolemnities, ſome of which are annual; and on theſe occaſions the riches and liberality of the inhabitants are no leſs conſpicuous, particularly on New-years day, and on Twelfth day in the morning.

The inhabitants of Lima are compoſed of whites or Spaniards, negroes, Indians, Meſtizoes, and other caſts proceeding from the mixture of theſe three.

The Spaniſh families are very numerous: Lima, according to the loweſt computation, containing 16 or 18000 whites. Among theſe are reckoned a third or fourth part of the moſt diſtinguiſhed nobility of Peru, and many of theſe dignified with the ſtyle of ancient and modern Caſtilians, among which are no leſs than 45 counts and marquiſſes. The number of knights belonging to the ſeveral military orders is alſo very conſiderable: beſides theſe, there are many families no leſs reſpectable, and living in equal ſplendor; particularly 24 gentlemen of large eſtates, but without titles, though moſt of them are of ancient families. One of theſe traces his deſcent from the Yncas. His name is Ampuero, from one of the Spaniſh commanders at the conqueſt of this country, who married a coya, or daughter of the Ynca.

All thoſe families live in a manner ſuitable

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to their rank, having eſtates equal to their generous diſpoſition, keeping a great number of ſlaves and other domeſtics: and thoſe who affect making the greateſt figure have coaches, whilſt others content themſelves with calaſhes or chaiſes, which are ſo common, that no family of any ſubſtance is without one. Theſe carriages indeed are more neceſſary here than in other cities, on account of the numberleſs droves of mules continually paſſing through Lima, covering the ſtreets with their dung, which being ſoon dried, turns to a nauſeous duſt, ſcarcely ſupportable to ſuch as walk on foot. Theſe chaiſes, which are drawn by one mule, and guided by a driver, have only two wheels with two ſeats oppoſite to each other, and will occaſionally ſerve for four perſons.

They are very ſlight and airy, but on account of the gildings and other ornaments, coſt ſometimes 800 or 1000 crowns.

The number of them is ſaid to amount to 5 or 6000; and that of coaches is alſo very conſiderable, though not equal to the former.

The funds to ſupport theſe expences are their large effects and plantations, civil and military employments, or commerce, which is here reckoned no derogation to the greateſt families.

Commerce is ſo far from being conſidered as a diſgrace at Lima, that the greateſt fortunes have been raiſed by it; thoſe on the contrary being rather deſpiſed, who, not being bleſſed with a ſufficient eſtate, or through indolence, neglect to have recourſe to it for improving their fortunes.

This reſource being introduced by a vain deſire of the firſt Spaniards to acquire wealth,

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is now the real ſupport of that ſplendor in which thoſe families live: and whatever reluctance the military gentlemen might originally have to commerce, it was removed by a royal proclamation, by which it was declared that commerce in the Indies ſhould not exclude from nobility or the military orders.

Some of the eminent families have been long ſince ſettled at Lima, whilſt the proſperity of others is of a later date.

The negroes, mulattoes, and their deſcendants, form the greater number of the inhabitants, and of theſe is the greateſt part of the mechanics; though here the Europeans alſo follow the ſame occupations, which are not reckoned diſgraceful at Lima, as they are at Quito. Since gain is in this place the univerſal paſſion, the inhabitants purſue it by means of any trade, without regard to its being followed by mulattoes; intereſt here preponderating againſt any other conſideration.

The third and laſt claſs are the Indians and Meſtizoes; but theſe are very ſmall in proportion to the multitudes of the ſecond claſs, and the magnitude of the city. They are chiefly employed in agriculture, making of earthen ware, and bringing of all kinds of proviſions to market; domeſtic ſervices being principally performed by negroes and mulattoes, either ſlaves or free, though generally by the former.

The uſual dreſs of the men differs very little from that worn in Spain; nor is the diſtinction between the ſeveral claſſes very great; for the uſe of all ſorts of cloth being allowed, every one wears whatever he can purchaſe; ſo that it is not at all uncommon to ſee a mulatto or

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other mechanic dreſſed in a tiſſue, equal to any thing that can be worn by a more opulent perſon.

They all greatly affect fine cloaths; and it may be ſaid, that the fineſt ſtuffs are more generally ſeen at Lima, than in any other place; vanity, and oſtentation being under no reſtraint.

Thus the great quantities brought in the galleons and regiſter-ſhips, though they ſell here vaſtly beyond their prime coſt in Europe, find a vent, the richeſt of them being uſed as cloaths, and worn with a careleſſneſs little ſuitable to their exorbitant price. But in this article the men are greatly exceeded by the women.

But what is ſtill more remarkable, the ladies carry their taſte for laces to a prodigious exceſs: nor is this emulation confined to perſons of quality, it has ſpread through all ranks, except the loweſt claſs of negroes. The lace is ſewed to their linen, which is always of the fineſt ſort, though very little of it is ſeen, the greateſt part being almoſt covered with lace. Theſe laces too muſt be all of Flanders fabric, no women of rank deigning to look on any other.

Their dreſs is very different from the European: it conſiſts of a pair of ſhoes, a ſhift, a petticoat of dimitty, an open petticoat, and a jacket, which in ſummer is of linen, in winter of ſtuff. To this ſome add a mantelet, that the former may hang looſe. The difference between this dreſs and that worn at Quito is, that at Lima it is much ſhorter, the petticoat not reaching lower than the calf of the leg, from which, nearly to the ancle, hangs a border of very fine lace, through which the

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ends of the garters are diſcovered, being embroidered with gold or ſilver, and ſometimes, though not commonly, ſet with pearls. The upper petticoat, which is of velvet or ſome rich ſtuff, is fringed all round, and not leſs crouded with ornaments, which are always exquiſitely fine. The ſhift-ſleeves, which are a yard and an half in length and two yards wide, when worn for ornament, are covered with rolls of lace, variegated in a very elegant taſte. Over the ſhift is worn the jacket, the ſleeves of which are exceſſively large, of a circular figure, and conſiſt of rows of lace, or ſlips of cambric or lawn, with lace diſpoſed betwixt each, as are alſo the ſhift-ſleeves. The body of the jacket is tied on the ſhoulders with ribbands, and the round ſleeves of it, being tucked up to the ſhoulders, are ſo diſpoſed with thoſe of the ſhift, as to form four wings. In ſhort, the whole dreſs taken together makes a very elegant figure. They who uſe a cloſe veſt, faſten it with claſps, but wear over it the looſe jacket.

In the ſummer they have a kind of veil, the ſtuff and faſhion of which is, like that of the ſhift and body of the veſt, of the fineſt cambric or lawn, richly laced. But in winter the veil worn in their houſes is of bayes. When they go abroad, full dreſſed, it is adorned like the ſleeves. They alſo uſe brown bays finely laced and fringed, and bordered with ſlips of black velvet. Over the petticoat is an apron of the ſame ſtuff as the ſleeves of the jacket, hanging down to the bottom of it. Hence ſome idea may be formed of the expence of ſuch a dreſs; nor will it appear ſtrange that the marriage-

ſhift ſhould coſt a thouſand crowns, and ſometimes more.

One particular upon which the women here extremely value themſelves, is the ſize of their feet, a ſmall foot being eſteemed one of the principal beauties. From their infancy they are accuſtomed to wear ſtrait ſhoes, ſome of which do not exceed five inches and an half, or ſix inches in length; ſo that in women of a low ſtature they are ſtill leſs.

Their ſhoes have little or no ſole, one piece of cordouan ſerving both for that and the upper leather; and of an equal breadth and roundneſs at the toe and heel, ſo as to form a long figure of eight: but the foot not complying with this, brings it to a greater regularity. Theſe ſhoes are always faſtened with diamond buckles, or ſomething very brilliant, according to the ability of the wearer; for the ſhoes are made in ſuch a manner that they never looſen of themſelves, nor do the buckles hinder their being taken off. It is unuſual to ſet theſe buckles with pearls. The ſhoemakers take care to make them in a manner very little calculated for ſervice. The uſual price is three half crowns a pair, while thoſe embroidered with gold or ſilver coſt from eight to ten crowns. The latter however are but little worn, as rather enlarging than diminiſhing the appearance of a ſmall foot.

They are fond of white ſilk ſtockings, made extremely thin, that their leg may appear the more ſhapely.

What has been already mentioned is only the more common dreſs of theſe ladies; a ſtill higher

higher idea of their magnificence will be had from knowing the ornaments with which they are decorated in their vifits, and on public occafions.

Their hair being naturally black, and reaching below their waifts, they tie up behind in fix braided locks, through which a golden bodkin, a little bent, is inferted, and a clufter of diamonds at each end. On this the locks are fufpended, fo as to touch the fhoulder. On the forehead and upper part they wear diamond aigrets, and the hair is formed into little curls, hanging from the forehead to the middle of the air, with a large patch of black velvet on each temple.

Their ear-rings are of brilliants, intermixed with tufts of black filk, covered with pearls. Thefe are fo common an ornament, that, befides the necklaces, they alfo wear about their neck rofaries, the beads of which are pearl, either feparate or fet in clufters, to the fize of a large filbert; and thofe which form the crofs are ftill greater.

Befides diamond-rings, necklaces, girdles, and bracelets, all very curious with regard to water and fize, many ladies wear other jewels fet in gold or in tombage.

Laftly, from their girdle before is fufpended a large round jewel, enriched with diamonds, much more fuperb than the bracelets. A lady covered with the moft extenfive lace, and glittering from head to foot with jewels, is fuppofed to be dreffed at the expence of not lefs than 30 or 40,000 crowns. A fplendor ftill more aftonifhing, as it is fo very common!

A fondneſs for expence appears no leſs in the ſtrange neglect and ſmall value which they ſeem to ſet on their rich apparel, by wearing them in a manner the moſt careleſs, and by that means bringing on themſelves freſh charges in repairing the old, or purchaſing new jewels, eſpecially pearls, on account of their fragility.

The moſt common of the two dreſſes, when they go abroad, is the veil and long petticoat; the other is a round petticoat and mantalette. The former for church, and the latter for taking the air or diverſions; but both richly embroidered with ſilver or gold.

On Holy Thurſday they are dreſſed in the long petticoat, as on that day they viſit the churches, attended by two or three female Negro or Mulatto ſlaves, dreſſed in an uniform like pages.

With regard to their perſons, they are in general of a middling ſtature, handſome, genteel, and of very fair complexions without the help of art; and they have uſually an enchanting luſtre and dignity in their eyes. Theſe perſonal charms are heightened by thoſe of the mind; an eaſineſs of behaviour, ſo well tempered, that whilſt it invites love it commands reſpect. The charms of their converſation are beyond expreſſion, their ideas juſt, their language pure, and their manner inimitably graceful. Theſe are the allurements by which great numbers of Europeans, forgetting the fair proſpects which they have at home, are induced to marry and ſettle here.

One objection againſt them, is, that being too well acquainted with their own excellencies, they

they are tainted with a haughtineſs which will ſcarcely ſtoop to the will of their huſbands; yet by their addreſs and inſinuating complaiſance they ſo far gain the aſcendancy over them as to be left to their own diſcretion. With regard to the independance they affect, it is no more than a cuſtom long eſtabliſhed in the country: the huſbands therefore conform to the manners of the country; and this complaiſance is rewarded by the diſcretion and affection of their ladies, which are not to be paralelled in any other part of the world.

They are ſo exceſſively fond of perfumes, that they always carry ambergris about them; putting it behind their ears, and in ſeveral parts of their cloaths. Not content with the natural fragrancy of flowers, which are alſo a favourite ornament, they ſcatter perfumes even on their noſegays. The moſt beautiful flowers they place in their hair; and others, which are moſt valuable for their odours, they ſtick in their ſleeves. The flower moſt in uſe is the chirimoya, which is of an exquiſite ſcent, though of a mean appearance.

To this paſſion for flowers it is owing, that the grand ſquare, every morning, on account of the vaſt quantity of beautiful vegetables brought thither, has the appearance of a ſpacious garden, which gratifies the ſmell and ſight abundantly. The ladies reſort thither in their calaſhes: and if their fancy happen to be pleaſed, they make but little ſcruple with regard to their price. A ſtranger has the pleaſure of ſeeing aſſembled here not only the ladies, but every body of rank, whoſe health and avocations will admit of it.

The lower classes of women, even to the very Negroes, affect, according to their abilities, to imitate their betters, not only in the fashion, but also in the richness, of their dress. None here are seen without shoes, as in Quito. A desire of being distinguished by an elegant dress is universal. Their linen is always starched to a great degree, in order to display the costly patterns of their laces. After this universal passion, their next care is cleanliness, of which the uncommon neatness of their houses is a sufficient proof.

They are naturally gay, sprightly, and jocose, without levity; remarkably fond of music: so that even among the lowest you are entertained with pleasing and agreeable songs. For the gratification of this passion they have in general good voices, and some of them are heard with admiration. They are very fond of balls, where they distinguish themselves equally by the gracefulness and agility of their motions. In short, the reigning passions of the fair at Lima, are shew, mirth, and festivity.

The natural vivacity and penetration of the inhabitants of Lima, both men and women, are greatly improved by conversing with persons of learning resorting thither from Spain; to which the custom of forming assemblies has also a great tendency.

Though the natives have too great a share of pride, they are not wanting in docility, when proper methods are taken. They instantly shew their reluctancy to obey a command given with haughtiness; but when delivered with mildness, equally obsequious. They are remarkably brave, and of such unblemished honour, as never

ver to diſſemble an affront received, or give one to others; ſo that they live together in a chearful and ſocial manner. The Mulattoes being leſs civilized, and having but ſlender notions of the turpitude of vice and the excellence of virtue, are haughty, turbulent, and quarrelſome; yet the miſchievous conſequences of theſe vices are leſs common than might naturally be expected in ſuch a populous city.

The manners and diſpoſitions of the nobility correſpond with their rank and fortune. Courteſy ſhines in all their actions; ſo that the reception which they give to ſtrangers is equally free from fawning flattery and a haughty reſerve. Thus the Europeans, who viſit them, are charmed with their probity, politeneſs, candour, and magnificence.

The temperature of the air in Lima differs very widely from that of Carthagena, though in the ſame latitude with it, namely, the one in the northern, and the other in the ſouthern hemiſphere: for as that of Carthagena is hot to a degree of inconvenience, this of Lima is perfectly agreeable; and the difference of the four ſeaſons is ſenſible; all of them are moderate, and none of them troubleſome.

Spring begins towards the cloſe of the year, that is, towards the end of November, or beginning of December; but is to be underſtood only of the heavens, as then the vapours, which filled the atmoſphere during the winter, ſubſide, the ſun appears again, and the country now begins to revive. This is ſucceeded by ſummer, which, though hot from the perpendicular direction of the ſun's rays, is far from being inſupportable, the heat being moderated

by the S. winds, which at this ſeaſon always blow, though with no great force. At the cloſe of June, or beginning of July, the winter begins, and continues till November or December, the autumn intervening between both. About this time the S. winds begin to blow ſtronger, and bring the cold with them, not indeed equal to that in countries where ſnow and ice are known, but ſo keen, that the light dreſſes are laid by, and cloth or other warm ſtuffs are worn.

The cold at Lima is owing to the winds, which, paſſing over the frozen climes of the S. pole, bring along with them part of the frigorific matter from thoſe gelid regions. But as a ſufficient quantity of thoſe particles could not be conveyed over ſuch an immenſe ſpace, as is between the frozen and torrid zone of its hemiſphere, nature has provided another expedient; for during winter the earth is covered with ſo thick a fog, as entirely to intercept the ſun's rays; ſo that the winds being propagated under the ſhelter of this fog, retain the particles they contracted in the frozen zone. Nor is this fog confined to the country of Lima; it extends, with the ſame denſity, northwards, thro' all the country of Valles, at the ſame time filling the atmoſphere of the ſea.

This fog ſeldom fails to cover the earth every day, and with a denſity that obſcures objects at any diſtance. About ten or eleven it begins to diſperſe, but is not totally, though it is then no impediment to the ſight, intercepting only the ſun's rays by day, and thoſe of the ſtars by night, the ſky being continually covered, whatever height the vapours float at in the atmoſphere.

ſphere. Sometimes, indeed, they are ſo far diſperſed as to admit of ſeeing the diſk of the ſun, yet ſtill precluding the heat of his rays.

It is not unworthy of obſervation on this head, that at the diſtance only of two or three leagues, the vapours are much more diſſipated from noon to evening than in the city; the ſun fully appearing, ſo as to moderate the coldneſs of the air. Alſo at Callao, which is only two leagues and an half from Lima, the winter is much more mild, and the air clearer during that ſeaſon. For the days at Lima are very melancholy and diſagreeable, not only on account of the darkneſs; but frequently during the whole day the vapours continue in the ſame degree of denſity and poſition, without breaking, or being elevated above the earth.

It is in this ſeaſon only that the vapours diſſolve into a very ſmall miſt or dew, called garua, and thus every where equally moiſtens the earth; by which means all thoſe hills, which, during the other parts of the year, offer nothing to the ſight but rocks and waſtes, are cloathed with verdure, and enamelled with flowers of the moſt beautiful colours, to the great joy of the inhabitants; who, as ſoon as the ſeverity of winter abates, reſort into the country, which exhibits ſo elegant an appearance. Theſe garuas never fall in quantities ſufficient to damage the roads, or incommode the traveller. A very thin ſtuff will not ſoon be wet through. But the continuance of the miſt during the whole winter, without being exhaled by the ſun, renders the moſt arid and barren parts fertile. For the ſame reaſon, they

turn the disagreeable dust in the streets of Lima, into a mud, which is rather more offensive.

The winds which prevail during the winter, are nearly, tho' not exactly, south: sometimes shifting a little to the S. E. between which and the S. they always blow. This was observed to happen commonly during two winters residence; the one at Lima in 1742, and the other at Callao in 1743. The first was one of the most severe that had ever been felt, and the cold general in all that part of America, S. to Cape Horn. In Chili, Baldivia, and Chiloe, the cold was proportional to the latitudes: and at Lima it occasioned constipations and fluxes; which swept away such numbers, that it seemed like a pestilence. And tho' disorders of this kind are very common in the winter-season, they are rarely attended with the danger which then accompanied them.

As an extraordinary singularity is observed in the kingdom of Peru; namely, that it never rains; or, to speak more properly, that the clouds do not convert themselves into formal showers; and as rain is seldom or never seen at Lima, in particular; so that place is equally free from tempests; that those who have never visited the mountains, nor travelled into other parts, as Guayaquil and Chili, are absolute strangers to thunder and lightning, nothing of that kind being known here. Accordingly the inhabitants are extremely terrified, when they first hear the former, or see the latter. But it is very remarkable, that what is here entirely unknown, should be so common at 30 leagues distance, or even less, to the E. of Lima, it being

ing no further to the mountains, where violent rains and tempeſts are as frequent as at Quito.

The winds, tho' ſettled in the S. and S. E. points, are ſubject to variations, but almoſt imperceptible. They are alſo very gentle, and even in the ſevereſt winter never known to do any damage by their violence; ſo that if this country were free from other inconveniencies and evils, its inhabitants would have nothing to deſire, in order to render their lives truly agreeable. But with theſe ſignal advantages, nature has blended inconveniencies which greatly diminiſh their value, and render this country even inferior to thoſe on which nature has not beſtowed ſuch great riches and fertility.

It has been obſerved, that the winds generally prevailing in Valles, throughout the year, come from the S. But this admits of ſome exceptions; which, without any eſſential alteration, implies, that they ſometimes come from the N. but ſo very faint as ſcarcely to move the vanes of ſhips, and conſiſt only of a very weak agitation of the air, juſt ſufficient to indicate that the wind is changed to the S. This change is regular in winter, and with it the fog immediately begins. This breath of wind is ſo particular, that from the very inſtant it begins, and before the miſt is condenſed, the inhabitants are unhappily ſenſible of it by violent head-achs; ſo as eaſily to know what ſort of weather is coming on, before they ſtir out of their chambers.

One of the inconveniencies of Lima, during the ſummer, is that of being tormented with fleas and bugs, from which the utmoſt care is

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not ſufficient to free the inhabitants. Their prodigious increaſe is partly owing to the duſt of that dung with which the ſtreets are continually covered; and partly to the flatneſs of the roofs, where the ſame duſt, wafted thither by the winds, produces theſe troubleſome inſects, which are continually dropping through the crevices of the boards into the apartments; and by that means render it impoſſible for the inhabitants, notwithſtanding all their pains, to keep their houſes free from them. The moſquitos are very troubleſome, but much leſs ſo than the former.

The next, and indeed a moſt dreadful circumſtance, is that of earthquakes, to which this country is ſo ſubject, that the inhabitants are under continual apprehenſions of being, from their ſuddenneſs and violence, buried in the ruins of their own houſes. Several deplorable inſtances of this kind have happened in this unfortunate city, and lately proved the total deſtruction of its buildings. Theſe terrible concuſſions of nature are not regular, either with regard to their continuance or violence: but the interval between them is never of a length ſufficient to obliterate the remembrance of them.

Theſe earthquakes, though ſo ſudden, have their preſages. One of the principal of which is a rumbling noiſe in the bowels of the earth, about a minute before the ſhocks are felt: and this noiſe does not continue in the place where it was firſt produced; but ſeems to pervade all the adjacent ſubterraneous parts. This is followed by diſmal howlings of the dogs, which ſeem to have the firſt perception of the approach-

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ing danger. The beasts of burden, passing the streets, stop; and by a natural instinct spread open their legs, the better to secure themselves from falling. On these portents the terrified inhabitants fly from their houses into the streets with such precipitation, that if it happens in the night, they appear quite naked; fear, and the urgency of the danger, banishing at once all sense of decency. Thus the streets exhibit such odd and singular figures, as might afford matter of diversion, were this a thing possible in so dreadful a moment.

This sudden concourse is accompanied with the cries of children, waked out of their sleep, blended with the lamentations of the women, whose agonizing prayers to the saints increase the common fear and confusion. The men are also too much affected to refrain from giving vent to their terror; so that the whole city exhibits one dreadful scene of consternation and horror. Nor does this end with the shock, none venturing to return to their houses, thro' fear of a repetition, which frequently demolishes those buildings which had been weakened by the first.

By attending to the exact time of five particular shocks in the year 1742, between the 9th of May and 14th of October, they were found to happen indifferently at half-ebb, or half-flood, but never at high or low water; which sufficiently confutes what some have confidently advanced, namely, that earthquakes always happen during the six hours of ebb, but never during the flood.

The nature of this country is so adapted to earthquakes, that all ages have seen their terrible devastations.

Since

Since the year 1582, there have happened about fifteen concuſſions, beſides that on the 28th of October 1746, at half an hour after ten at night, five hours and three quarters before the full of the moon; which began with ſuch violence, that, in little more than three minutes, the greateſt part, if not all the buildings, great and ſmall, in the whole city, were deſtroyed; burying under their ruins thoſe inhabitants who had not made ſufficient haſte into the ſtreets and ſquares, the only places of ſafety in thoſe terrible convulſions of nature. At length the dreadful effects of the firſt ſhock ceaſed, but the tranquillity was of ſhort duration; concuſſions returning ſo repeatedly, that the inhabitants, according to the account ſent of it, computed two hundred in the firſt twenty-four hours; and to the 24th of February the following year, 1747, when the narrative was dated, no leſs than four hundred and fifty ſhocks were obſerved: ſome of which, if leſs permanent, were equal to the firſt in violence.

The fort of Callao, at the very ſame hour, tumbled into ruins. But what it ſuffered from the earthquake in its buildings, was inconſiderable, when compared with the terrible cataſtrophe which followed. For the ſea, as is uſual on ſuch occaſions, receding to a conſiderable diſtance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, and ſuddenly turned Callao and the neighbouring country into a ſea. This was not however totally performed by the firſt ſwelling of the waves. For the ſea retiring further, returned with ſtill greater impetuoſity, the ſtupendous water covering both the walls, and other

buildings

buildings of the place; ſo that whatever had eſcaped the firſt, was now totally overwhelmed by thoſe terrible mountains of waves: and nothing remained, except a piece of the wall of the fort of Santa Cruz, as a memorial of this terrible devaſtation. Here were then twenty-three ſhips and veſſels, great and ſmall, in the harbour, of which nineteen were abſolutely ſunk, and the other four, among which was a frigate, called St. Fermin, carried by the force of the waves to a conſiderable diſtance up the country.

This terrible inundation extended to other parts on the coaſt, as Cavallos and Guanape: and the towns of Chancay, Guaura, and the valleys della Baranco, Sape, and Pativilca, underwent the ſame fate as the city of Lima.

The number of perſons who periſhed in the ruins of that city, before the 31ſt of the ſame month of October, according to the bodies found, amounted to 1300, beſides the maimed and wounded, many of which only lived a ſhort time, and that in torture. At Callao, where the number of inhabitants amounted to above 4000, 200 only eſcaped; and twenty-two of theſe by means of the abovementioned fragment of a wall.

According to an account ſent to Lima after this accident, a volcano in Lucanas burſt forth the ſame night, and ejected ſuch quantities of water, that the whole country was overflown: and in the mountain near Patas, called Converſiones de Caxamarquilla, three other volcanoes burſt, diſcharging frightful torrents of water; and in the ſame manner as that of Carguayraſſo.

Some

Some days before this deplorable event, ſubterraneous noiſes were heard at Lima; ſometimes like the bellowings of oxen, and at others the diſcharge of artillery. And even after the earthquake, they were ſtill heard during the ſilence of the night: a convincing proof this, that the inflammable matter was not totally exhauſted, nor the cauſe of the ſhocks abſolutely removed.

Though the ſummer here, as has been already obſerved, is conſiderably warm; yet is it not productive of venomous creatures, which in this country are not known. And the ſame may be ſaid of all Valles; though there are ſome parts, as Tumbez and Piura, where the heat is nearly equal to that at Guayaquil This ſingularity therefore can proceed from no other cauſe than the natural drought of the climate.

The diſtempers moſt common at Lima, are malignant, intermitting, and catarrhous fevers, pleuriſies, and conſtipations: and theſe rage continually in the city. The ſmall-pox is alſo known here, as at Quito, but is not annual; but when it prevails, great numbers are ſwept away by it. Convulſions likewiſe are very common, and no leſs fatal. This diſorder, though unknown at Quito, is frequent all over Valles, but more dangerous in ſome parts than in others.

This diſtemper is divided into two kinds; the common or partial, and the malignant or arched convulſions. They both come on, when nature is ſtruggling in the criſis of ſome acute diſtemper: but with this important difference, that thoſe attacked with the former, often

recover,

recover, tho' the greater part die on the 3d or 4th day, the term of its duration: while those who have the misfortune of being attacked by the latter, sink under it in two or three days, it being very extraordinary for any to recover.

The spasms, or convulsions, consist in a total inactivity of the muscles, and a constriction of the nerves of the whole body, beginning with those of the head. Add to this a pungent humour dispersing itself thro' all the membranes of the body, and causing insupportable pains: so that the groaning patient labours under inconceivable tortures, which are still increased on his being moved, tho' with the greatest care and gentleness, from one side to the other. The throat is so contracted that nothing can be conveyed into the stomach. The jaws are also sometimes so closely locked, that it is impossible to open them. Thus the miserable patient lies without motion, and tortured in every part of his body, 'till nature, quite exhausted, falls a victim to this deleterious distemper.

In the partial kind, the pulse is no more affected than in the distemper which preceded it; and commonly abates the violence of a fever: but in the malignant kind augments it, the circulations being quickened. The patient usually falls into a lethargy, but which does not remove the torturing sensation of the punctures, often so insupportable, that the miserable patient violently turns himself, and thus augments his agonies.

The malignant or arched spasm is, even in the first stage, so violent, as to cause a contraction of the nerves of the vertebræ, from the brain

brain downwards: and as the diſtemper increaſes, the nerves become more and more conſtricted, that the body of the patient inclines backward into an arch, and all the bones become diſlocated.

It is common, at the beginning of this diſtemper, to be totally convulſed: ſo that every part is affected, and during the continuance is deprived of all ſenſation; 'till nature being intirely ſpent, the lethargic fits ſucceed; and it is generally in one of theſe that the patient breathes his laſt.

The uſual method of treating this diſtemper, is, by keeping both the bed and the chamber very cloſe, even with a fire in it, that the pores being opened by the heat, the tranſpiration may be the more copious. Laxative clyſters are often injected. External applications are alſo made, to ſoften the parts, and open the ducts. For the ſame intention, cordials and diuretic draughts are preſcribed; alſo the bath: but the latter only at the beginning of the firſt ſtage.

The women of Lima are ſubject to a diſtemper extremely painful, very contagious, and almoſt incurable; namely, a cancer in the matrix: which even at the beginning is attended with ſuch excruciating pains, that their lives are one continued ſeries of groans.

This diſtemper comes on ſo imperceptibly, as not to be indicated by the countenance or pulſe, 'till at its height. And ſuch is the contagion of it, that it is contracted only by ſitting in the ſame chair commonly uſed by an infected perſon, or wearing her cloaths. But what is moſt ſurpriſing, is, that it has not been known to affect the men, huſbands uſually living with their

wives

wives 'till the laſt ſtage of the diſtemper. One cauſe aſſigned for this malady is their exceſſive uſe of perfumes, which they always carry about them.

Slow or hectic fevers alſo prevail greatly in theſe countries, and are likewiſe contagious: but more from a want of proper care in the furniture and apparel of their perſons infected, than any malignancy of the climate.

The venereal diſeaſe is equally common in this country. It is indeed general in all that part of America; and little attention is given to it till arrived to a great height.

It would be natural to think, that a country, where rain is ſeldom or never known, muſt of neceſſity be totally barren: whereas Lima enjoys a fertility to be envied, producing all kinds of grain, and a vaſt variety of fruits. Here induſtry and art ſupply that moiſture which the clouds ſeem to withhold, and the ſoil is by this means rendered remarkably fruitful amidſt a continual drought.

It was one of the principal cares of the yncas to cut and diſpoſe in the moſt advantageous manner, trenches or ſmall canals, in order to conduct the waters of the rivers to nouriſh every part, and render large fields capable of producing grain. The Spaniards finding theſe uſeful works ready executed to their hands, took care to keep them in the ſame order. And by theſe are watered the ſpacious fields of wheat and barley, large meadows, plantations of ſugar canes, and olive tree, vineyards, and gardens of all kinds, which yield uncommon plenty.

LIPES, a juriſdiction of the archbiſhopric of Plata in Peru, contiguous to that of Porco, and

and extending about thirty-five leagues. The air is extremely cold; ſo that grain and fruit thrive very little here; but it abounds in cattle, common to ſuch provinces where the heaths and mountains are of a height to render the air continually cold. Here are alſo mines of gold, but at preſent neglected. That of St. Chriſtopher de Acochala was formerly one of the moſt famous ſilver mines in Peru, the metal in ſome parts of it being cut out with a chiſſel; but it is now no longer worked, probably for want of hands.

Lobos *de la Mar*, or the Iſle of Lobos, the name of ſeveral iſlands in the Pacific ocean; but two of the largeſt have the name, to diſtinguiſh them from others, called Lobos de la Terra, from their not being above two leagues from the land. They both lie in the kingdom of Peru, in lat. 6. 50. S. about ſixteen leagues from the continent, and are about ſix miles in length.

Near the eaſtermoſt is another iſland, about half a mile long, with ſome rocks and breakers all round it, near the ſhore, eſpecially on each ſide of the entrance into the road, where the ſhore is bold, and has no viſible danger. There is a paſſage for boats to windward to come into the road, which is ſituated on the leeward ſide of theſe iſlands, and a ſound between them. It is not half a mile broad, but double that in depth, has from ten to twenty fathom water, and good anchorage. No ſhips can come in, but to leeward of the iſlands. On the eaſtermoſt of them is a round hommock, and behind it a ſmall cove, where the water is ſmooth, deep, and very convenient for careening ſhips.

The

The ſoil is a hungry, white, clayiſh earth, mixed with ſand and rock.

LONDON, *New*, a county of New England in N. America. It is the firſt from that of Hertford upon the coaſt. The eaſt parts of it are pleaſant and fruitful; but the weſt ſwampy and mountainous.

LONG-ISLAND, ſometimes called Naſſau-iſland, a large iſland in the province of New-York. It has Staaten-iſland, and that in which New-York lies, on the N. and N. W. the colony of Connecticut on the N. and the Atlantic ocean on the E. and S. It is not above 18 miles in breadth, but 120 in length, ſtretching itſelf along Fairfield-county in New-England, near the mouth of Hudſon's river, being furniſhed every where with convenient harbours. A channel of 100 miles long, and 12 broad, divides it from the continent. It contains the counties of Suffolk, Richmond, and Queen's county. The trade which the Engliſh drive here is in furs and ſkins; tobacco, as good as that of Maryland; horſes, beef, pork, peas, wheat, and all ſorts of Engliſh grain, which here yield a very great increaſe. Theſe they ſend to the ſugar-colonies, and have ſugar, rum, cotton, and indigo in return. The ſoil is likewiſe ſo good, that all other fruits and vegetables thrive here, together with flax, hemp, pumkins, melons, &c. In the middle of it is Saliſbury plain, ſixteen miles long and four broad, without a ſtick or a ſtone on it.

There being an excellent breed of horſes in this iſland, the militia regiment is cavalry: and there are races on the plain twice a year for a

ſilver

Coza and Miſſiſippi, kindly entertained the Engliſh reſiding among them ſeveral years, and carried on a ſafe and peaceable trade with them, 'till about the year 1715; when by the intrigues of the French, they were either murdered, or obliged to make room for theſe new invaders, who unjuſtly poſſeſſed and fortified the ſame ſtations, in order to curb the natives, and cut off their communication with the Engliſh traders: by this means they engroſſed a profitable trade, for above 500 miles, of which the Britiſh ſubjects were a few years ago the ſole maſters.

LOUISBOURG, the capital of the iſland of Cape Breton in N. America. Its harbour is one of the fineſt in that country, being almoſt four leagues in circuit, and ſix or ſeven fathom water in every part of it.

The anchorage, or mooring, is good, and ſhips may run a-ground without any danger. Its entrance is not above 300 toiſes in breadth, formed by two ſmall iſlands, and is known twelve leagues off at ſea, by Cape Lorembec, ſituated near the N. E. ſide of it. Here is vaſt plenty of cod, and the fiſhery may be continued from April to the cloſe of December.

It was taken from the French by the Engliſh fleet, under Sir Peter Warren, and our American forces, commanded by Sir William Pepperel, in the year 1745, but afterwards reſtored to France, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748.

It was again taken by the Engliſh, under the command of Admiral Boſcawen and Lieutenant-General Amherſt, on the 27th of July 1758, and its fortifications ſince demoliſhed; ſo that it

it would be ſuperfluous to deſcribe works which have now no exiſtence.

The town of Louiſbourg ſtands on a point of land on the S. E. ſide of the iſland; its ſtreets are regular and broad, conſiſting for the moſt part of ſtone houſes, with a large parade at a little diſtance from the citadel; the inſide of which is a fine ſquare, near 200 feet every way. On its N. ſide, while poſſeſſed by the French, ſtood the Governor's houſe and the church; the other ſides were taken up with barracks, bomb-proof; in which the French ſecured their women and children during the ſiege. The town is near half an Engliſh mile in length, and two in circuit.

The harbour is more than half an Engliſh mile in breadth, from N. W. to S. E. in the narroweſt part; and ſix miles in length, from N. E. to S. W. In the N. E. part of the harbour is a fine careening wharf to heave down, and very ſecure from all winds. On the oppoſite ſide are the fiſhing ſtages, and room for 2000 boats to cure their fiſh.

In winter, the harbour is totally impracticable, being entirely frozen, ſo as to be walked over: that ſeaſon begins here at the cloſe of November, and laſts till May or June: ſometimes the froſts ſet in ſooner, and are more intenſe; as particularly in 1745, when by the middle of October, a great part of the harbour was already frozen.

The principal, if not the only, trade of Louiſbourg, is the cod-fiſhery, from which vaſt profits accrued to the inhabitants; the plenty of fiſh being remarkable, and at the ſame time

better than any about Newfoundland. Their wealth consisted in their storehouses, some within the fort, and others along the shore; and in the number of fishing barks. One inhabitant maintained forty or fifty, with three or four men to each, with a settled salary, but were obliged to deliver a certain number of standard fish. So that the cod-storehouses never failed of being filled against the time the ships resorted hither from most of the ports of France, with provisions and other goods in exchange for this fish, or the inhabitants consigned it to be sold in France: vessels also from the French colonies of St. Domingo and Martinico, brought sugar, tobacco, coffee, rum, &c. and returned loaded with cod: and any surplus, after Louisbourg was supplied, found a vent in Canada; the return from which was made in beavers skins and other fine furs.

Louisbourg was not, however, the only port where the French vessels loaded with cod, greater numbers going themselves to fish at Newfoundland, off the coast of Petit Norde, and on the Banks.

Besides the inhabitants of Louisbourg, great numbers of French were settled along the coasts of the neighbouring islands, particularly that of St. John, where besides their dwellings, they had storehouses and fishing tackle: which being the most profitable occupation, and the gain less uncertain, very few applied themselves to the cultivation of the lands, which is indeed during the winter covered with snow, sometimes to the depth of three or four feet, and not dissolved till the summer is pretty far

far advanced; ſo that huſbandry ſeemed to want a requiſite time for the products to attain their proper maturity.

Louiſbourg lies in lat. 45. 50. N. and long. 52. 47. W. from the meridian of the Lizzard; or 58. 35. from that of London, or 61. from that of Paris.

Louisiana, or New France, a country of N. America, of pretty large extent. It is bounded on the S. by the Gulph of Mexico; on the N. by the river Illinois, and the territories of the Paniaſſus, Paoducas, Oſages, Trononte, Tecagas, Chavanons, and other wild Indians; on the E. by part of Florida, Georgia, and Carolina; and on the W. by New Mexico, and New Spain. It ſtretches from N. to S. about 15 degrees; namely, from lat. 25. to 40. N. and from E. to W. about ten or eleven degrees; that is, from long. 86. to 96. or 97. for the limits are not preciſely fixed. M. de Liſle gives it a much greater extent, eſpecially on the N. ſide, which he joins to Canada: ſo that part of it is bounded by New-York, Penſylvania, Virginia, &c. and on the W. by the rivers Bravo and Salado.

Notwithſtanding the ſeveral attempts of the Spaniards and French to make ſettlements in this country, which generally miſcarried, it appears that the latter had hardly any tolerable ſettlements in it till 1720, except that of Iſle Dauphine, on the banks of the Mobile, about 70 leagues E. of the mouth of the Miſſiſippi. They have indeed increaſed their ſettlements ſince, both along ſome of the coaſts, and the banks of the Mobile and Miſſiſippi: but they

ſeem to be ſtill inconſiderable, that of Iſle Dauphine and Fort Lewis excepted.

The inhabitants of Louiſiana differ in general from thoſe of Canada, in being more ſprightly and active, leſs thoughtful and moroſe; their Chiefs are more abſolute, and their government more polite. They knew nothing of any inſtruments made of iron and ſteel, much leſs of fire-arms, 'till the coming of the French, all their cutting tools being very ingeniouſly made of ſharp flints, and they uſed them with equal dexterity. Their principal ornaments are bracelets, pendants, and collars; ſome of pearl, but ſpoiled for want of knowing how to bore them.

Several of the rivers which overflow at certain ſeaſons, render the country very pleaſant and fertile. Nothing is more delightful than the meadows, which are well adapted to agriculture. In ſome parts the ground yields three or four crops: for the winter conſiſts only in heavy rains, without any nipping froſts.

All the trees known in Europe flouriſh here, together with a great variety of others unknown to us; ſuch as the tall cedars, which diſtil an odoriferous gum; and the cotton-tree, which is here of a prodigious height.

The whole country abounds with variety of game, fowl, cattle, and every thing neceſſary for life.

Louiſiana abounds with rivers, the principal of which, beſides the Miſſiſippi, are, St. Francis, the river of Oxen, the Black river, and the Mobile, which waters one of the fineſt countries in the world, and forms at its mouth a noble bay.

The

The eaſtern parts of Louiſiana, belonging to the Engliſh, are impowered by the royal patents to extend their colonies of Carolina, Virginia, and Pennſylvania, as far as they pleaſe; ſo that the French muſt be circumſcribed within very narrow limits, if not obliged to evacuate the whole country.

LOXA, or LOJA, a city of Quito in S. America. It is the capital of a juriſdiction of the ſame name, and lies 215 miles E. of Payta, in lat. 5 deg. 10 min. S. long. 77 deg. 10 min. W. Beſides two churches, it has ſeveral religious foundations; as, a college of jeſuits and an hoſpital, with fourteen villages in its diſtrict.

The juriſdiction of the ſame name produces the famous ſpecific for intermitting fevers, known by the name of Caſcarilla de Loja, Quinquina, or Jeſuits bark. Of this ſpecific there are ſeveral kinds, but one more efficacious than the others. Its beſt ſpecies has been minutely deſcribed by the ingenious botaniſt M. Juſieu, who at the ſame time inſtructed the Indians employed in cutting it, how it might be ſent unmixed to Europe. He alſo inſtructed them how to make an extract of it; which is now generally uſed in all kinds of fevers. The uſual height of the tree is about two fathoms and an half. The Indians cut it down, after which they bark it, and dry the quinquina.

The juriſdiction of Loja has alſo a great advantage in breeding cochineal, an inſect from which the dyers extract their beautiful ſcarlets. It is produced on a plant known by the name of nopal, or nopalleca, the Indian fig-tree. The inſect, in ſeveral circumſtances, is analo-

gous to the ſilk-worm, particularly in the manner of depoſiting its eggs. The method of killing the cochineal is with hot water, fire, or the rays of the ſun; but the laſt ſeems to bid faireſt for performing it in the moſt perfect manner. The inſects deſtined for propagation are put into a box well cloſed, and lined with a coarſe cloth; and in this confinement they lay their eggs, and afterwards die: at the proper ſeaſon the inſects are removed to the nopal, from the moſt ſucculent juice of which they extract their nouriſhment, by means of their proboſcis, without any viſible injury to the plant.

The principal countries where the cochineal inſects are bred, are Oaxaca, Flaſcala, Chulula, Nueva Gallicia, and Chiapa, in the kingdom of New-Spain. But in Oaxaca alone they are gathered in large quantities, and form a branch of commerce; whereas in others the inhabitants take but little trouble, and the inſects breed wild, and are called grana ſylveſtre, but in England generally known by the name of cochineal meſtique.

The inhabitants of Loja, called Lojanos, do not exceed 10,000 ſouls, though formerly far more numerous. In this juriſdiction numerous droves of horned cattle and mules are bred, to ſupply the others of the province, and even that of Piura. The carpets alſo manufactured here are of a remarkable fineneſs.

The decline of the gold-mines of the town of Zeruma, which is to be imputed to the negligence of thoſe concerned in working them, has been very diſadvantageous to the whole department of Loja, and conſequently diminiſhed the number of its inhabitants.

LUCANAS, a jurisdiction in the diocese of Guamanga, in Peru. It begins about twenty-five or thirty leagues S. W. of Guamanga. Its temperature is cold and moderate. The parts where the former prevails, large droves of all sorts of cattle are bred; and those of the latter, are fertile in grain, herbs, and fruits. It likewise abounds in valuable silver mines, the chief riches of Peru; and by that means is now the centre of a very large commerce; great numbers of merchants resorting hither with their goods; and others for purchasing such provisions as their own countries do not afford.

LUCAYA, or BAHAMA ISLANDS, a cluster of islands in the Atlantic ocean, discovered by Columbus in his long search after America. See BAHAMA.

LUCIA, *St.* by the French called Sainte Alousie, from its being discovered on St. Lucia's day; one of the Caribbee islands, six miles S. of Martinico, and twenty-one N. W. of Barbadoes. It is about twenty-three miles long, and twelve broad. Here are several hills, two of which being very round and steep, are called the pins-heads of St. Lucy, and said to be volcanos. At the foot of them are fine valleys, having a good soil, and well watered. In these are tall trees, with the timber of which the planters of Martinico and Barbadoes build their houses and wind-mills. Here is also plenty of cocoa and fustic.

The air is reckoned healthy, the hills not being so high as to intercept the trade-winds, which always fan it from the E. by which

means the heat of the climate is moderated, and rendered agreeable.

In St. Lucia are ſeveral commodious bays and harbours, with good anchorage; particularly one, called the Little Careenage, at which the Engliſh not long ſince intended to have built a fort. Here veſſels might ſafely careen, and lie ſecure in all ſorts of weather.

This iſland has been poſſeſſed and quitted by the Engliſh and French alternately, more than once. But at laſt the Courts of both nations agreed, about the year 1722, that St. Lucia, together with St. Vincent, and Dominica, ſhould be evacuated, 'till the right to them was amicably determined. But it ſoon appeared inconteſtably to belong to the Engliſh. In conſequence of which King George I. granted St. Lucia and St. Vincent to the late Duke of Montague, who ſent thither at a vaſt expence, Captain Uring, his Deputy-Governor, &c. with planters, arms, tools, and all the neceſſaries for that purpoſe, on board ſeven ſhips, under convoy of the Winchelſea man of war, and were landed ſafe in St. Lucia; but, after a ſhort ſtay, were obliged, by a ſuperior force from Martinico, to reimbark, and the iſland to remain neutral 'till the ſeveral claims on both ſides were decided. But the French have ſince taken poſſeſſion of it, and built ſeveral fortifications, in breach of the treaty. It lies in lat. 13. 45. N. long. 61. W.

Lumley's Inlet, a gulph of the Northmain, in the Arctic countries of America. It lies on the eaſtern coaſt, and is ſituated E. of Whitebear-bay.

LYN, a market town of Essex county, and Massachuset Proper, in New-England. It lies at the bottom of a bay, S. of Marble-head, and near a river, which at the breaking up of winter, and the melting of the ice and snow, runs into the sea with a very rapid current.

MACHANGARA, a river formed by the junction of several streams, issuing from the S. and W. sides of the Panecillo, or sugar-loaf mountain, on the S. W. side of Quito, in Peru. It washes the south parts of that city, and has a stone-bridge over it.

MACAS, the southern district of Quixos, a government of Peru, in S. America. It is bounded on the E. by the government of Maynas; on the S. by that of Bracamoros and Yaguarsongo; and on the W. the E. Cordillera of the Andes divides it from the jurisdictions of Riobamba and Cuenca. Its capital is the city of Macas, the name commonly given to the whole country.

The vicinity of Macas to the Cordillera causes a sensible difference between its temperature, and that of Quixos. Thus winter begins here in April, and lasts 'till September, which is the time of summer between the Cordilleras. But at Macas the fine season is in September; and is the more pleasant on ac-

count of the winds, which, for the moſt part, are then northerly. The atmoſphere is clear, the ſky ſerene, and the earth cloathed in its various beauties; at which the inhabitants rejoice, the horrors of winter being paſt, which are here very dreadful.

It produces, in great plenty, grain and fruits, which require a hot and moiſt temperature. But one of the principal occupations of the country people here is in cultivating tobacco, which being excellent in its kind, is exported in rolls to Peru. Sugar-canes thrive well here, and conſequently cotton. But the dread of the wild Indians, who have often ravaged the country, intimidates the inhabitants ſo that they plant no more than ſerves for preſent uſe.

Among the vaſt variety of trees which crowd the woods, is the ſtorax, whoſe gum is exquiſitely fragrant, but ſcarce; the trees growing at ſome diſtance from the villages; and it is dangerous going into the foreſts, by reaſon of the Indians: the ſame may be ſaid with regard to the mines of ultra marine, from which very little is extracted, but a finer colour cannot be imagined.

The territory of Macas likewiſe produces cinnamon trees, ſaid to be of a ſuperior quality to thoſe of Ceylon. The bloſſom alſo, both in taſte and fragrancy, far exceeds that of the Eaſt Indies.

Great quantities of copal are exported from Macas, as likewiſe wild wax; but the latter is of ſmall value. For, beſides being reddiſh, it never hardens; and the candles made of it, when burnt, give a very diſagreeable ſmell.

MACHALA,

MACHALA, a town of Guayaquil, on the coaſt of Tumbez, in Peru; at preſent in a declining ſtate.

The juriſdiction of the ſame name produces great quantities of cocoa, reckoned the beſt in all Guayaquil. In its neighbourhood are great numbers of mangles, or mangrove trees, whoſe ſpreading branches and thick trunks cover all the plains; which, lying low, are frequently overflown. This tree divides itſelf into very knotty and diſtorted branches, and from each knot a multitude of others germinates, forming an impenetrable thicket. The wood of the mangrove-tree is ſo heavy, as to ſink in water; and when uſed in ſhips, &c. is found very durable, being ſubject neither to ſplit or rot.

The Indians of this juriſdiction pay their annual tribute in the wood of the mangrove-tree.

MADERA, one of the largeſt rivers that falls into the famous Maranon, or River of Amazons, in S. America. In 1741 the Portugueſe ſailed up this ſtream, 'till they found themſelves near Santa Cruz de la Sierra, betwixt lat. 17. and 18. S. From this river downwards the Maranon is known among them by the name of the River of Amazons; and upwards they give it the name of the River of Solimoes.

MADRE DE POPA, a town and convent of Terra Firma, in S. America, ſituated on the river Grande. The pilgrims in S. America reſort in great numbers to this religious foundation, which is there in almoſt as great reputation as the Santa Caſa, or Holy Houſe of Loretto, is in Europe; great numbers of miracles being ſaid to have been wrought here by the Holy

Holy Virgin, in favour of the Spanish fleets and their sailors, who are therefore very liberal in their donations at her shrine. It lies fifty-four miles E. of Carthagena, lat. 10 deg. 51 min. N. long. 76 deg. 15 min. W.

MAGDALENA, a large river, the two principal sources of which are at no great distance from the city of Popayan in Terra Firma, S. America. Belcazar, by going down this river, found a passage to the N. sea; and returned to Old Spain, in order to sollicit the title of governor of the country which he had discovered, conquered, and peopled. This river, after uniting its waters with the Cance, takes the name of Grande, and falls into the N. sea below the town of Madre de Popa.

MAGDALEN, CAPE OF, a promontory in the centre of Canada, N. America, where there is an iron mine, which promises great advantages, both with regard to the goodness of the metal, and the plenty of the ore.

MAGELLAN STREIGHTS, a passage into the S. sea, lying between lat. 52. and 54. S. and between long. 76. and 84. W. It is upwards of 300 miles in length, from Cape Virgin in the Atlantic, to Cape Desire in the Pacific ocean; in some places several leagues over, and in others not half a league. These streights were discovered, and passed through, in the year 1520, by Ferdinando Magellan, a Portuguese, in the service of the Crown of Spain, while in quest of a W. passage to the E. Indies: which he accordingly performed; but was unfortunately killed in the Molucca islands. His ship, however, returned by the Cape of Good Hope, and was the first vessel ever known to have

have ſurrounded the globe. It is ſaid to have many ſafe harbours in it, with narrow entrances, and vaſt large bays, encompaſſed with high mountains, ſheltering them ſo cloſe on all ſides, that ſhips may ſafely ride in them with the leaſt anchor, whatever weather is without.

Admiral Drake alſo paſſed theſe ſtreights, in his voyage round the world.

Later navigators into the S. ſea, particularly Commodore, now Lord, Anſon, paſſed round Cape Horn: but dreadful ſtorms have often been felt in weathering that ſouthern promontory.

MAGELLANIA, or TERRA MAGELLANICA, a vaſt tract of land, extending from the province of Rio de la Plata, quite to the utmoſt verge of S. America; namely, from lat. 35. to 54. S. The river Sinfondo divides the W. part from the S. of Chili: the northern part of it alſo borders on Chili, and Cuyo or Chicuito on the W. the South ſea bounds it, in part, on the W. the North ocean wholly on the E. and the Streights of Magellan on the S.

Magellan himſelf made no great diſcoveries in this country, except the two Capes, of Virgins and Deſire. But with regard to the gigantic ſtature of its inhabitants, which all poſterior adventurers mention, their accounts ſeem founded either on miſtake or falſhood.

The two principal nations diſcovered by the miſſionaries, are, the Chunians and Huillans. the former inhabit the continent, and ſeveral iſlands, to the northward of the Huillans, who inhabit the country near Magellan Streights. The ſoil is generally barren, hardly bearing any

any grain, and the trees exhibit a diſmal aſpect; ſo that the inhabitants live miſerably in a cold, inhoſpitable climate. The Huillans are not numerous, being hunted like wild beaſts, by the Chunians, who ſell them for ſlaves. How many other nations there may be in this vaſt continent cannot be known; much leſs their genius or manner of living.

The eaſtern coaſts of Magellan are in general low, abounding with bogs, and have ſeveral iſlands near the ſhore; the moſt remarkable of which is the Iſle of Penguins, ſo called from a bird of that name, which abounds on it. But whether peopled or not is unknown.

The iſlands S. of the Magellan Streights are Terra del Fuego; as there is a volcano in the largeſt of them emitting fire and ſmoke, and appears terrible in the night.

MAGUELON, the moſt weſterly of the three iſlands of St. Peter, lying off Newfoundland, in N. America. This is not ſo high as the other two; and its ſoil very indifferent. It is about three quarters of a league in length.

MAINE, a province of New-England, in N. America, by others made only a county in the province of New Hampſhire. Maine is bounded on the N. E. by Nova Scotia; on the S. by Maſſachuſet-bay, and on the S. W. and N. W. by New Hampſhire.

This and Cornwall being two frontier counties, and chiefly expoſed to the Indians, moſt of the towns are defended by regular block-houſes, which are kept in good repair.

MAMARUMI, a place in the road from Guayaquil to Quito, in S. America, where there is a very beautiful caſcade. The rock from

from which the water precipitates itſelf, is nearly perpendicular, and fifty toiſes or fathoms high; and on both ſides edged with loſty and ſpreading trees. The clearneſs of the water dazzles the ſight, which is delighted at the ſame time with the large volume of water formed in its fall. After which it continues its courſe in a bed, along a ſmall deſcent, and is croſſed over by a bridge.

MANCORA, a place in the road from Guayaquil to Truxillo, in Peru, ſituated on the ſea-coaſt. Through it, during winter, runs a rivulet of freſh water, to the great relief of the mules that travel this way. But in ſummer the little remaining in its channel is ſo brackiſh, as to be hardly tolerable. Its banks are ſo fertilized by the water, that ſuch numbers of large algarbals are produced, as form a ſhady foreſt.

MANITOUALIN. See MANTOVALIN.

MANSFIELD ISLAND, a ſmall iſland in the mouth of Hudſon's Bay, in N. America.

MANTA, a bay of Guayaqui, in S. America, formerly famous for a conſiderable pearl-fiſhery; but it has been totally diſcontinued for ſome years.

This bay has its name from the great numbers of large fiſh, called mantas, the catching of which is the common employment of the inhabitants.

The method of carrying on this fiſhery is as follows: they throw into the water a log of wood, about eighteen feet long, and near a foot in diameter; on one end they place their net, and on the other an Indian ſtands in an erect poſition, and with a ſingle oar rows his tottering

tottering bark to the diſtance of half a league from the ſhore, where he ſhoots his net: another Indian follows on a ſimilar log, takes hold of the rope faſtened to one end of the net, and, when fully extended, they both make towards the land, haling the net after them. It is aſtoniſhing to obſerve with what agility the Indians maintain an equilibrium on theſe round logs, notwithſtanding the continual agitations of the ſea, and their being obliged to mind the oar and net at the ſame time. They are indeed excellent ſwimmers; ſo that if they happen, which is very ſeldom, to ſlip off, they are immediately on the log again, and in their former poſition.

MANTOVALIN, an iſland in the lake Huron, in Canada. It lies along the northern coaſt, is upwards of thirty leagues long, and about four or five broad.

MARACAIBO, or MARACAYA, a ſmall, but rich, city of Venezuela, a province of Terra Firma, in S. America, ſituated on the weſtern banks of the lake of the ſame name, about eighteen miles from its mouth, and ſeventy-three S. W. of Coro. It is extremely well built, has ſeveral ſtately houſes, very regular, and adorned with balconies, from which there is a proſpect of the lake, which has the appearance of a ſea. Here are about 4000 inhabitants, of which 800 are able to bear arms. It has a Governor ſubordinate to the Governor of Terra Firma. Here is a large parochial church, an hoſpital, and four convents. Veſſels from twenty-five to thirty tons are continually coming hither, with manufactures and merchandiſes from the places

near

near the lake, which are afterwards put on board Spanish ships that come hither to buy them. Ships are built at Maracaibo, which trade all over America, and even into Spain, this place being very commodious for ship-building. It lies 338 miles E. of Rio de la Hacha. Lat. 10. 51. N. long. 70. 15. W.

MARACAIBO LAKE, or rather gulph, a large collection of waters, on which the town abovementioned is situated. It is near 208 miles long, and, in some parts, 50 in breadth, running from S. to N. and emptying itself into the N. sea; the entrance of which is well defended by strong forts; but Sir Henry Morgan passed by them, plundered several Spanish towns on the coast, and defeated a squadron which had been sent to intercept him.

As the tide flows into this lake, its water is something brackish, notwithstanding the many rivers it receives. It abounds with all sorts of fish, some of which are very large. By the navigation of this lake the inhabitants of Venezuela carry on a trade with those of New-Granada. The lake becomes narrower towards the middle, where the town is erected.

MARANHAO, or MARAGNANO, a captainship of Brasil, in S. America; so called from an island of the same name. It is contiguous to Para, and has that of Siara on the E. the ocean on the N. and the Tupuyos, a barbarous nation of Indians, on the S. This Indian nation is very numerous, and divided into several tribes and languages, extending themselves a great way from E. to W. all along the S. side of this and some other captainships. Indeed the breadth of the Portuguese territory, from

from S. to N. is inconſiderable, not daring to penetrate too far into the country of the hoſtile natives: though its extent from E. to W. is computed to be about 80 leagues: and this is the caſe with all the other provinces of Braſil. Some make this and Para to be but one government, ſtretched as far W. as the River of Amazons: the coaſts of Maranhao Proper, however, begin on the W. of the Bay of Piranga; but, according to our more modern maps, at the Cape of Cuma, W. of the iſland of St. Lodovigo de Maranhao, and extend themſelves E. to the river or barrier of Vermelhas, about five leagues.

Along theſe coaſts are the iſlands of Sipotuba, and Igarapoe, with San Lodovigo, beſides many ſmaller ones: and beſides the three noted rivers of Maracu, Topocoru, and Mony, which unite their ſtreams in the bay of that iſland, there are four others, which run the ſame northern courſe through this province; namely, Paragues, Paramiri, Camuſſimiri, and the Barreiras Vermelhas, which divides this from Siara.

Maranhao Island, a ſmall iſland at the mouth of the three rivers abovementioned, on the N. ſide of the province of the ſame name; it is oblong, 45 miles in circuit, very fertile, and well inhabited. The French, who ſeized on it in 1612, built a town here, called St. Louis de Maragnan: but the Portugueſe have ſince recovered it out of their hands. It is now very ſtrong, and hath a ſtout caſtle built on a rock, towards the ſea, which commands a very convenient harbour. It is the ſee of a Biſhop, under the archbiſhopric of St. Salvador de la Baya.

Baya. The iſland itſelf is very difficult of acceſs by reaſon of the rapidity of the three rivers which form it: ſo that veſſels muſt wait for proper winds and ſeaſons to viſit it. Beſides the town aforeſaid, here are two others, but leſs conſiderable; namely, St. Andero, on the moſt northern point, and San Jago, on the ſouthern. The natives have about 27 hamlets, called Oc or Tave, each conſiſting only of four large huts, forming a ſquare in the middle; but from 300 to 500 paces in length, and about 25 or 30 feet in depth; all being built of large timber, and covered from top to bottom with leaves: ſo that each may contain 2 or 300 inhabitants.

The iſland is neither plain, nor very mountainous; but pleaſantly intermixed with low hills and dales, watered by rivers and ſmall ſtreams. As it is only two degrees S. of the equator, the days and nights, ſeaſons, &c. are nearly the ſame during the whole year. The air is ſerene, ſeldom incommoded with ſtorms, exceſſive drought or moiſture, except in the time of the periodical rains, which laſt from February to June. The land is fertile and rich, producing every thing in perfection, without labour or manure. The inhabitants go naked, but paint their faces and bodies of various colours, adorning their heads and arms with a variety of feathers. The children are born white, but are anointed with oils, which gradually turn their ſkins brown, or of an olive hue. They are ſtrong and healthy, live to a great age, and are ſeldom afflicted with diſeaſes. Bows and arrows are their only weapons, with which they are very dexterous: but they

they are fierce and cruel, especially to their prisoners.

The continent of Maranhao, about three or four leagues from this island, is inhabited by the Tapouytapare and Toupinambois nations, who are wild and fierce, and divided into 15 or 20 such hamlets as have been described above. Contiguous to these are the territories of Cuma and Gayeta, inhabited by nearly the same people; the two former have about 30 or 40 villages, and live in a country whose soil is richer than that of the island where the Portuguese are mostly settled.

These two nations are at continual war with the Tapouyes, whose plantations they at last destroyed, being assisted by the Portuguese, who have since settled some of their own people in that territory. The Dutch made some fruitless attempts both against the captainship and island, but the French had better success.

Its capital, of the same name, or Marignan, has a harbour at the mouth of the river St. Mary, on the Atlantic ocean: 495 miles N. W. of Cape St. Roque, lat. 2. 27. S. long: 44. 36. W.

MARANON, the same with the River of the Amazons. See AMAZONS.

MARBLEHEAD, a town of Essex county, and Massachuset Proper, in New-England. It lies four miles to the S. of Salem, has a small harbour, but a rocky shore. Here the Society for propagation of the Gospel have a missionary.

MARGARETTA, or SANTA MARGARITA DE LAS CARACCAS, an island of Terra Firma, in

in S. America, from which it is parted by a ſtreight, 68 miles W. of Paria, or New-Andaluſia. Columbus diſcovered it in his third voyage, anno 1498. It is about 50 miles long, and 24 broad. The climate is ſaid to be unhealthy, from the frequent fogs with which the iſland is covered.

It produces Indian corn, with the uſual fruits of the torrid zone. The N. parts are high land, and have a ſoil proper for ſugar-canes, tobacco, &c. Here are ſeveral ſorts of animals, particularly wild hogs, with fiſh and fowl. It is ſubject to Spain. Lat. 11. 46. N. long. 64. 12. W.

MARIGALANTE, one of the Caribbee iſlands of America, in the Atlantic ocean; ſo called from the ſhip's name in which Columbus diſcovered it, in 1493. It is of an elliptical figure, five leagues and an half from N. to S. and four from E. to W. It lies near Guadaloupe: both which are now in the poſſeſſion of the Britiſh Crown, having been taken from the French in the year 1759. Lat. 16. 32. N. long. 60. 51. W.

MARTHA'S VINEYARD, an iſland near Rhode-Iſland, on the coaſt of New-England, in N. America, 76 miles S. of Boſton. Its inhabitants, as well as thoſe of Nantucket, follow the fiſheries, in which they have great ſucceſs. Lat. 41. 12. N. long. 70. 20. W.

MARTHA, ST. a province of Terra Firma, and S. America. It is bounded on the N. by the N. ſea; on the E. by Rio de la Hacha; on the S. by New-Granada; and on the W. by the territory of Carthagena. It is about 300 miles in length, and 200 in breadth, is a mountain-

mountainous country, and reckoned the highest land in the world.

MARTHA, ST. a city in the province last-mentioned, in S. America, with a harbour on the N. sea, at the mouth of the Guayra; about 124 miles N. E. of Carthagena. Lat. 11. 55. N. long. 74. 56. W.

MARTINICO, one of the largest of the Caribbee, or windward islands. It belongs to the French, and is the seat of their Governor-general of the islands. It is about 60 miles long, and 30 in breadth, and lies 40 leagues to the N. W. of Barbadoes. It has several lofty mountains, especially in the inland parts; from which a number of rivulets flow into the valleys on every side, beautifying the island, and rendering it remarkably fruitful. Its bays and harbours are numerous, safe, and commodious; and so well fortified, that our attempts upon it in the late wars always failed.

The soil is very fruitful, abounding in the same productions as are common to our islands in that part of the world. Sugar is the principal commodity, of which great quantities are made. Indigo, cotton, piemento or allspice, ginger, cocoa, aloes, plantains, and other fruits common to the torrid zone, are produced here; together with great quantities of coffee.

The air at Martinico is hotter than at Guadaloupe; but the hurricanes less frequent and violent than in that and some others of the Caribbee islands.

It has no less than 40 rivers, some of which are navigable a great way up the country, and never dry; but at times overflow their banks, and sweep away houses and trees with their current.

current. Besides these there are a great variety of streams, which, in the rainy season, water the dales and savannas. Some of the hills are cultivated, and others covered with woods, which afford shelter to wild beasts, and abundance of serpents and snakes. The tobacco growing on the steep declivities is preferable to that in the valleys.

Besides the disturbances occasioned here by frequent revolts of the native savages, a dreadful earthquake shook it, October 29, 1727, which continued for 11 hours with very little intermission; and shocks were felt for several days after.

Martinico, nevertheless, is at present in a flourishing condition. Besides many fortifications filled with strong garrisons of regular troops from France, it can muster 10,000 fighting men of militia, and 40 or 50,000 negroes, who are dispersed among the plantations over the whole island.

Martinico, it is observed, became the more populous by the cruelty of Lewis XIV. who caused a great number of his Protestant subjects to be transported hither as slaves. Another particular which has increased the number of its inhabitants, is, that the greatest part of the French ships trading to America, put in here for refreshments; by which means most of the families which retire from France, settle here.

The town of Martinico is the residence of many merchants, and is much frequented by shipping, especially from Nantes, whose cargoes are sure of a quick sale here. The harbour is also a safe retreat, in the hurricane-season, and at the same time to windward of all

iſlands, a circumſtance of great advantage to ſhips bound to Europe. The church is only a wooden ſtructure. Lat. 14. 33. N. long. 60. 54. W.

MARTIN, ST. one of the Caribbee iſlands of America, ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, between Anguilla on the N. W. and St. Bartholomew on the S. E. and about 15 miles from each. It is about ſeven leagues in length, and four in breadth, with commodious bays and roads on the N. W. ſide. Here are good ſalt-pits, and lakes of ſalt water, which run a great way within the iſland: but has no freſh water but what falls from the clouds, and is ſaved by the inhabitants in ciſterns. The ſalt lakes abound in good fiſh, particularly turtle; and the ſaltwater-pools are frequented by vaſt numbers of birds. In the woods are wild hogs, turtle doves, and parrots innumerable. Here are ſeveral trees, producing gums; and plenty of the candle-tree, ſplinters of which, when dry and lighted, emit a very fragrant ſmell. Its tobacco, which is reckoned the beſt in all the Caribbee iſlands, is the principal commodity and trade of the inhabitants.

The Spaniards formerly kept a garriſon here in a fort; but about the year 1650, they blew up the fort, burned their houſes, and abandoned the place. Then the Dutch and the French ſhared the iſland between them, and they lived very amicably. The French had, however, the beſt part of the iſland; but the ſpot where the Spaniſh fort ſtood fell to the Dutch, who erected fine houſes, with large ſtore-houſes, and purchaſed a conſiderable number of negroes. But in 1689, the French were attacked and plundered

plundered by Sir Timothy Thornhill; and in July 1744, driven out intirely by the Engliſh, who ſtill continue in poſſeſſion of it. The Dutch part continues in a pretty good ſtate, but has no tolerable port; a road only, where ſhips are much expoſed, is the beſt anchoring place in that part of the iſland: beſides, St. Martin lies ſo far to leeward, as renders the trading to the windward iſlands very difficult. Lat. 18. 6. N. long. 62. 30. W.

MARYLAND, one of the Britiſh colonies of N. America; it was always reckoned part of Virginia, 'till K. Charles I. made a grant of it to George Calvert, Lord Baltimore, of Ireland; who dying before the patent was made out, his ſon finiſhed it in 1632. The ſettlement of the colony coſt a large ſum, and was made, at firſt, with about 200 perſons, all Roman Catholics, and moſt of them of good families: but the proprietary very wiſely introduced a general toleration for all Chriſtians: a meaſure that greatly tended to the flouriſhing ſtate of the colony.

It is divided, by the north extremity of Cheſapeak bay, into two parts, called the eaſtern and weſtern ſhores; and lies between lat. 38. and 40. N. and between long. 74. and 78. W.

Maryland is bounded by Penſylvania on the N. by another part of the ſame province, and the Atlantic ocean on the E. by the Apalachian mountains on the W. and by Virginia on the S. It is about 140 miles long, and nearly the ſame in breadth.

The lands next the ſea are low, but riſe gradually 'till they terminate in the Apalachian mountains. Great part of the country was co-

covered with wood, 'till cut and cleared by the planters; but interſperſed with ſavannahs and meadows, watered with ſeveral ſmall ſtreams and ſprings.

This colony, as it had for a long time, with Penſylvania, the honour of being unſtained with any religious perſecution; ſo neither they nor the Penſylvanians have ever, 'till very lately, been harraſſed by the calamities of any war, offenſive or defenſive, with their Indian neighbours; but have always lived in the moſt exemplary harmony with them. Indeed, in a war which the Indians carried on againſt Virginia, they, by miſtake, made an incurſion into the territories of Maryland; but were ſoon ſenſible of their error. The preſent war has indeed changed every thing: and the Indians, thro' the perfidious inſinuations of the French, were taught to laugh at all their ancient alliances.

Maryland, like Virginia, has no conſiderable town, and for the ſame reaſon; namely, the number of its navigable creeks and rivers. Anapolis, however, is the ſeat of government; it is ſmall, but beautifully ſituated on the river Patuxent: and here is the principal cuſtom-houſe.

The people of Maryland are of the ſame eſtabliſhed religion as thoſe of Virginia, that of the church of England: but the clergy are here provided for in a much more liberal manner.

At preſent the people of Maryland chiefly cultivate tobacco, as they do in Virginia; and the planters live in farms ſcattered about the country, and have the like conveniency of ſhips coming

coming up to their very doors, by means of Chesapeak bay, and its navigable rivers.

Their tobacco, called Oroonoko, which is stronger than that of Virginia, and on that account greatly in demand in the eastern and northern parts of Europe, where it is preferred to the sweet-scented tobacco of James and York rivers, in Virginia, amounts to about 40,000 hogsheads. The white inhabitants are about 40,000, and the negroes upwards of 60,000.

The number of ships trading hither from England, and other parts of the British dominions, were computed at 100 sail above 40 years ago; but from the increase of the inhabitants, a much greater number must be now employed.

There is little or no woollen manufacture followed by any of the inhabitants, except what is done in Somerset county. Their common drink is cyder, which is very good; and, when properly made, not inferior to the best white wine. They have rum from Barbadoes, wine from Madera and Fial, also beer, malt, and various sorts of wines from England. Plenty of good grapes grow wild in the woods, but no wine is made from them.

Most of the Indians live on the eastern shore. Some of them indeed come over to the other side in winter, to hunt for deer, in which they greatly delight: and it is very rare that any of them will embrace the life or worship of the Christians. But their number is now inconsiderable, occasioned by the perpetual discords among themselves.

The chief rivers are Patowmack, Patuxent, and Severn, on the weſtern ſhore; and on the other ſide, Chiptouk, Cheſter, Saſſapas, &c.

The province of Maryland is divided into 11 counties; ſix on the weſtern, and five on the eaſtern ſide of the bay of Cheſapeak. Thoſe on the weſtern ſide, are St. Mary's, Charles, Prince George, Calvert, Anne, Arundel, and Baltimore counties. On the eaſtern ſide of the bay, are Somerſet, Dorcheſter, Talbot, Kent, and Cecil counties.

Lord Baltimore is both the governor and proprietary of Maryland; and the family is now of the Proteſtant perſuaſion.

MASSACHUSETS, the principal ſubdiviſion of New-England, in N. America. It is bounded on the N. by New-Hampſhire; on the E. and S. by the Atlantic ocean and Connecticut; and on the W. by New-York. Its length is 112 miles, and its breadth 38; producing Indian corn in abundance, though but little other grain. Here is plenty of mutton, beef, pork, fowl and fiſh, with flax and hemp; and the inhabitants are employed in manufactures of linen, woollen, and leather. They build great numbers of ſhips, having plenty of timber and other materials for that purpoſe. They have copper and iron mines, and ſome of the latter is manufactured; but their fabrics in general, particularly thoſe of hats, are diſcouraged by the mother country. They furniſh the ſugar-iſlands with ſalt proviſions, in return for which they take ſugar and molaſſes. They have ſtills for making rum; and ſome ſugar bake houſes are lately erected.

The

The government is a mixture of royal and charter kind: for the King appoints the Governor, the Aſſembly nominates the Council: nor will they fix the Governor's annual ſaláry, the better, as they think, to keep him in dependence on themſelves.

This is, by far, the moſt powerful among the Britiſh colonies, having a ſufficient number of mariners to man a large fleet; and being able to raiſe about 20,000 ſoldiers, in caſe of neceſſity.

The bulk of the people are of the Independent perſuaſion; but ſeveral among them have lately come over to the Church of England. See ENGLAND, NEW.

There is alſo a large and deep bay in the ſame country, called Maſſachuſet's Bay.

MASSEDAN, a bay between Aquapulco, and Aquacara, a port near the Cape of California, in N. America, where Sir Thomas Candiſh lay, after paſſing the Magellan Streights.

MASQUE POCONA, a juriſdiction of Charcas, in Peru, extending above 30 leagues. Its air is hot, but not too great for vines.

The city of the ſame name, where the Biſhop of Santa Cruz de la Sierra reſides, is very thinly inhabited; but there are, in other parts of the juriſdiction, ſeveral populous towns. The valley in which it ſtands is above eight leagues in circuit, producing all kinds of grain and fruits: and the woods and uncultivated mountains afford great quantities of honey and wax, which conſtitute a principal branch of its trade.

MASQUES, or CHILQUES and MASQUES, a juriſdiction of Cuſco, in Peru, which begins

about ſeven or eight leagues from Cuſco, extending above 30 in length. See CHILQUES.

MATANE, a river of Canada, the mouth of which is capable of receiving veſſels of 200 ton. All this coaſt of the river St. Lawrence, eſpecially near Matane, for upwards of 20 leagues, abounds in cod, and might employ above 500 ſhalops, or fiſhing-ſmacks, at a time. The fiſh is very fine, and fit for exportation to the Streights, Spain, and the Levant. Great numbers of whales have been ſeen here floating upon the water, which may be ſtruck with the harpoon, and prove a very valuable fiſhery.

MATTA DE BRASIL, a town in the captainſhip of Pernambuco, in Braſil; about nine leagues from Olinda. It is very populous, and in its territory they cut great quantities of Braſil wood, which is ſent to Europe.

MATTHIAS, ST. the weſtermoſt of the two iſlands diſcovered by Dampier, on the coaſt of New Britain, and ſouthern countries of America. It is about nine or ten leagues in length, mountainous and woody, but interſperſed with ſeveral ſavannahs, and ſome ſpots which ſeemed to be cleared.

MAYEN'S ISLAND, or JOHN MAYEN'S ISLAND, an iſland lying S. W. of Spitzbergen, in 71. 23. N. lat. The ſea which waſhes its coaſt was formerly frequented by abundance of whales; but theſe fiſhes removing further N. the iſland has been forſaken. A very high mountain beginning near its northern extremity, called Beerenbergen, or Bear-mountain, extends quite acroſs the iſland, and may be ſeen 30 miles at ſea. Here are ſeveral good bays, and

and the land is habitable, abounding with fish and deer. But the vast quantities of ice floating on all sides, especially towards the E. render it absolutely inaccessible in spring.

MAYNAS, a government, formerly the eastern limit of the jurisdiction of Quito, in Peru, and joining on the E. to the governments of Quixos and Jaen de Bracamoros. In its territory are the sources of those rivers which, after rapidly traversing a vast extent, form, by their confluence, the famous River of the Amazons; known also by the name of Maranon. The shores of this, and the many other rivers which pay it the tribute of their waters, environ and pervade the government of Maynas. Its limits, both towards the N. and S. are little known, extending far into the countries of the wild Indians; and is separated from the possessions of the Portuguese, by the famous line of demarcation, or the boundary between those countries belonging to Spain and Portugal.

Its capital is San Francisco de Borja, the residence of the Governor, but the Superior resides at Santiago de la Laguna.

There are several missions in the government of Maynas, and diocese of Quito, particularly 12 on the river Napo, and 24 on the Maranon; many of them both large and populous.

MECHOACAN, a province in the audience of Mexico, in N. America. It is bounded on the N. by part of Panuco, and the provinces of Zacatecas and Guadalajara; on the E. by another part of Panuco and Mexico Proper; on the S. by the latter and the South sea, which, together with Xalisco, bounds it also on the W.

and N. W. It extends 70 leagues along the coaſt, and ſtill farther inland.

The climate is extremely good, and the ſoil remarkably fruitful. In this province are mines of ſilver, and a few of gold and copper. Among its numerous productions are the cacao, or chocolate-nut, the root mechoacan, ſeveral odoriferous gums and balſams, ſarſaparilla, ambergris, vanillas, caſſia, &c.

The natives, now incorporated with the Spaniards, learn all kinds of trades; and are particularly curious in making cabinets, and weaving ſilk: but their greateſt art is in making images of ſmall feathers, equal to the moſt exquiſite painting. The country is infeſted with foxes, ſquirrels, lions, wild dogs, and tygers. But it has alſo a numerous breed of excellent horſes for the ſaddle or harneſs; and produces plenty of honey and wax; and the ſea and rivers are ſtored with excellent fiſh.

Mechoacan was formerly a kingdom, but the Spaniards have reduced it into a biſhopric, in which are about 200 towns of converted natives. The greateſt part of the trade in this province is carried on by land, there being hardly any ſeaports deſerving that name.

MECHOACAN, an epiſcopal city, and the capital of the province of the ſame name, ſituated on a large river, abounding in fiſh, near the weſt ſide of a lake, about 120 miles W. of Mexico. It is a large place, beautifully decorated with a fine cathedral, and handſome houſes belonging to rich Spaniards, who own the ſilver mines at Guanaxoato or Guaxaſiata.

MENDOZA,

MENDOZA, a jurisdiction in the kingdom of Chili, in S. America. It has a town of the same name, and lies on the east side of the Cordillera, about 50 leagues from Santiago, in a plain adorned with gardens, well supplied with water by means of canals. The town contains about 100 families, half Spaniards, and the other half Casts, together with a college of jesuits, a parochial church, and three convents. In this jurisdiction are also the towns of St. Juan de la Frontera, situated on the east of the Cordillera, and about 30 leagues north of Mendoza; and St. Lewis de Loyola, about 50 east of Mendoza: the latter is very small, but has a parish-church, a Dominican convent, and a college of Jesuits.

MERIDA, the capital of Jucatan, a province in the audience of Mexico, in N. America. It is the seat of the Governor, and the see of a Bishop, and lies near the north side of the province, between the gulphs of Mexico and Honduras; 45 miles south of the ocean, and 135 north-east of the city of Campeachy. Lat. 21. 38. N. long. 90. 36. W.

MERIDA, a town of New Granada, a province of Terra Firma, in S. America, situated near the limits which divide it from Venezuela. The soil round this place abounds with fruit of all sorts, and there are also gold-mines in the neighbourhood. It lies about 54 miles from the lake of Maracabo, and 260 N. E. of St. Fé. The inhabitants carry their fruit and other merchandise to Truxillo.

MESASSIPPI. See MISSASIPPI.

MESTIZOS, a name given to those inhabitants of Spanish America, whose fathers were Spaniards, and mothers Indians.

META INCOGNITA, a tract of land which Sir Martin Forbisher, in his third voyage to discover a north-west passage, in 1578, took possession of in the name of Queen Elizabeth; but has never been thought worth looking after since.

MEXICO, called also New Spain, a large province of N. America, subject to the crown of Spain. It forms a powerful empire, and is subdivided into two parts, Old or South Mexico, and New or North Mexico.

MEXICO, OLD, is bounded on the W. by New Mexico; on the N. and N. E. by the gulph of Mexico; on the S. E. by Terra Firma; and on the S. W. by the Pacific ocean, or South sea. It is upwards of 2000 miles in length, and from 71 to 550 in breadth, occasioned by its indentures by several bays on the north coast, and the gulph of California on the west.

It is, in general, a mountainous country, chains of high hills running through it from S. E. to N. W. Its eastern shore is a flat, plain country, full of morasses, and overflown in the rainy season; but so covered with thickets of bambou, mangroves, and bushes, that the logwood-cutters make their way through it with their hatchets. The barren trees are continually verdant, and those that are fructiferous blossom and bear almost the whole year round. The cochineal insect, for dying of scarlet, is bred here in great quantities. They have pine-

apples,

apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs and cocoa-nuts, in the greateſt plenty and perfection.

The preſent inhabitants are native Indians, Spaniards, Creols, Meſtizoes, negroes, and Mulattoes.

Mexico is governed by a Viceroy from Old Spain, who is deſpotic. The forces in this country are not conſiderable, nor are there many fortified towns, and even thoſe have been taken and plundered by buccaneers of ſmall force.

The revenues which the King of Spain draws from this country are prodigious, ariſing from the fifth part of gold and ſilver taken from the mines, the cuſtoms, exciſe, and other impoſts, and the rents and ſervices by which all lands are holden of the crown.

This is the firſt country which the Spaniards ſettled on the continent of America; and it ſtill continues their principal colony. It is exceſſively hot, lying moſtly within the torrid zone, and on the eaſt coaſt extremely unhealthy, and encumbered with woods, which extend a conſiderable way into the water. The inland country is more agreeable, and the air of a better temperament.

The number of horned cattle is, in a manner, infinite, many of them running wild; and a very conſiderable trade is carried on in their hides and tallow; but their fleſh turns to little account in commerce, by reaſon of the extreme heat. Swine are equally numerous, and their lard is much in requeſt, and uſed inſtead of butter all over the country. Sheep are numerous, but their wool is of no great conſideration in

in their trade, being hairy and ſhort. Cotton is here very good, and in great plenty, of which there are large manufactures, and is the general wear of the inhabitants; the woollens and linens of Europe being worn only by perſons of ſome condition. Some provinces produce ſilk, but not in ſuch abundance or perfection as to form a remarkable part of their export. The gold and ſilver of this country engroſs the principal attention of the inhabitants. The commodities of moſt importance in foreign commerce, are cochineal, indigo, and cacao; alſo ſugar, tobacco, and logwood.

The trade of Mexico may be conſidered as conſiſting of three great branches, by which it communicates with the whole world: namely, the trade with Europe by La Vera Cruz; the trade with the Eaſt Indies by Acapulco, and the commerce of the South ſea by the ſame port.

Old Mexico is divided into three diſtricts, or governments, called audiences, as having ſovereign courts; which, though under the inſpection of the Viceroy, decide in all civil or criminal matters. Theſe are, 1. Guadalajara, containing the provinces of Cinaloa, Culiacan, Chamephan, Xaliſco, Guadalajara Proper, Zacatecas, and New Biſcay. 2. Mexico, including the provinces of Mechoacan, Mexico Proper, Panuco, Flaſcala, Guaxaca, Tabaſco, and Yucatan. 3 Guatimala, which comprehends the provinces of Chiapa, Soconuſco, Guatimala Proper, Vera Paz, Honduras, Nicaragua, Coſta Ricca, and Veragua.

Mexico audience is bounded on the N. by New Mexico; on the E. by the North ſea, or

gulph

gulph of Mexico; has the South ſea on the S. and S. W. and on the S. E. ſide it joins the provinces of Chiapa and Soconuſco in the government of Guatimala. It lies between lat. 17. and 23. N. wholly in the torrid zone. Its extent, from the remoteſt point of Panuco on the N. E. to that of Mechoacan on the S. W. from ſea to ſea, is 200 leagues; and much the ſame from the North part of Mechoacan on the N. W. to Chiapa on the S. E. yet it is hardly 60 leagues from ſea to ſea acroſs Guaxaca; but this dimenſion is excluſive of the peninſula of Jucatan.

The province called Mexico Proper has Flaſcala on the E. Mechoacan on the W. Panuco on the N. and the Pacific ocean on the S. It is 315 miles from S. to N. and 200 where broadeſt, on the coaſt; but narrower towards the N.

Mexico, a royal city, archiepiſcopal ſee, and the capital of the province of the ſame name, and of the whole kingdom of Mexico in N. America. It ſtands on an iſland in the middle of a ſpacious lake, and is acceſſible only by cauſeways of a conſiderable length. It is of a ſquare form, and about ſeven miles in circuit; ſome reckon the number of inhabitants to be about 70 or 80,000. It is greatly admired for ſtraight and ſpacious ſtreets and ſquares, its cool ſituation in ſuch a hot climate, and its natural ſtrength. It contains 29 convents, 22 nunneries, and a great number of pariſh-churches, beſides the cathedral.

It is the reſidence of the Viceroy, the ſeat of the firſt Audience, and one of the richeſt and moſt ſplendid cities in the world. And tho' it has

no-

no ſea-port, nor any communication with the ſea by navigable rivers, it enjoys a prodigious commerce, and is itſelf the centre of all that is carried on between America and Europe on one hand, and between America and the Eaſt Indies on the other. The goods from Acapulco to La Vera Cruz, or from La Vera Cruz to Acapulco, for the uſe of the Philippines, and, in a great meaſure, for the uſe of Peru and Lima, paſs through this city, and employ an incredible number of horſes and mules. Hither all the gold and ſilver is brought to be coined; here the King's fifth is depoſited; and all that immenſe quantity of plate wrought, which is annually ſent into Europe. The ſhops glitter on all ſides with gold, ſilver, and jewels, beſides great cheſts piled up to the cielings, waiting for an opportunity of being ſent to Old Spain, &c. The city itſelf is regularly built, and the houſes handſome, though not loſty. The ornaments of the churches are extravagantly rich, though the taſte of their architecture is comparatively poor. It is 170 miles W. of the gulph of Mexico, and 190 N. from Acapulco. Lat. 20. 15. N. long. 103. 12. W.

Mexico, New, including California, is bounded by unknown lands on the N. by Florida on the E. by Old Mexico on the S. and by the Pacific ocean on the W. It is a temperate, and, in ſome parts, a fruitful country; though California is a mountainous, craggy, and barren tract, both in the outer and inner coaſts towards the gulph: and notwithſtanding the indefatigable pains of the Jeſuit miſſionaries, among the natives of this country, for convert-

converting them to Chriſtianity, by feeding them regularly every day, and uſing all the endearing methods to win them, they ſeem ſtill to retain their priſtine brutality: of which they have given ſeveral inſtances; for after ſeizing upon a horſe belonging to one of the miſſionaries, killing and feaſting on him, in a ring round the carcaſe, they not long after proceeded to a more ſhocking extremity, and barbarouſly maſſacred the fathers Caranco and Tamaral, with many more perſons, ſome of whom were natives attached to the miſſionaries, who fell into their hands, having totally ruined four other miſſionaries, the remaining twelve or thirteen narrowly eſcaping the ſame fate. The fathers, by their ſurveys, have found California to be a peninſula, joined to New Mexico on the N. E. near which are pearl-fiſheries; and theſe ſeem to be the chief thing valuable; though the paltry natives cannot be made to labour in queſt of that treaſure, or any thing elſe. See CALIFORNIA.

In Mexico are rich ſilver mines, the principal of which are thoſe of St. Barbe.

MIAMIS, a ſavage nation of Canada, in N. America, at the bottom of lake Michigan, where they have a village at Chicagou, the reſidence of the Chief, or Cacique, who can raiſe between 4 and 5000 warriors, and never goes abroad without a guard of 40 ſoldiers, who keep ſentry day and night round his hut or cabbin, while he is there. He ſeldom appears in perſon to his ſubjects, but contents himſelf with ſignifying his orders to them by one of his officers.

The

The chieftains of the Miamis are more respected, however, and less easy of access, than those among the most part of the other savages.

MICHIGAN, one of the five principal inland lakes of Canada, in N. America. Between a point of the neighbouring continent at Michillimakinac, a Huron settlement, extending itself S. and opposite to another, which looks N. is formed a streight, through which the lake Huron communicates with the lake Michigan.

This is an incommodious place for a settlement, the cold being excessive; owing undoubtedly to the usual agitation by very tempestuous winds in the waters of the three lakes among which it lies; the least, namely, Michigan, being 300 leagues in circuit, without reckoning the bay Des Puants, 28 leagues more in depth inland, that empties itself into it.

The inequality of the tides disturbs very much the navigation of these lakes: for they are observed to keep no sort of regularity, and they are pretty strong in some places. Near the little island of Michillimakinac they rise and fall once in 24 hours, at full and new moon, always runing into lake Michigan. It is no less certain that, independently of these tides, there is a current which is continually directed from lake Huron into the other; a phænomenon apparently occasioned by springs, such as are frequently to be met with in the open sea.

This current, however, does not hinder the natural course of the Michigan, which discharges its waters into the lake Huron, as well as the Superior lake. The first of these two

currents,

currents, namely, that of lake Huron into lake Michigan, is more perceptible when the wind blows from the oppofite quarter; namely, from the S. at which time flakes of ice are feen to be carried from the former into the latter, with as much velocity as a fhip before the wind. This is known to be the cafe exactly in the ftreights of Bahama.

In the channel by which the Superior lake throws its waters into the Huron lake, there are currents in great numbers under water, and fo ftrong as fometimes to carry away the fifhermen's nets: from which it is conjectured, that this large lake difcharges a part of its waters into that of Michigan by means of fubterraneous channels, which it has hollowed for this purpofe, in the fame manner as it is thought the Cafpian fea communicates with the Euxine; and the latter again with the Mediterranean. All this is the more likely, as the Superior lake receives into it at leaft 40 rivers, 10 or 12 of which are as large as the ftreight itfelf, and would not give out fo much water, by a great deal, as it receives, had it no other outlet than this channel.

The fame thing may be faid of Michigan, which, befides the waters of the great lake, receives alfo into its bofom a vaft number of rivers, many of which are very large, and have a long courfe. For, befides the vifible difcharge of its waters into the lake Huron, it muft neceffarily have hollowed alfo a fubterraneous paffage for itfelf, as has been faid already of the Superior lake. A difcovery which has been made on this head corroborates the conjecture; namely, that all the rocks which are found at a certain

tain depth in the ſtreight called the Sault, or Fall of St. Mary, are perforated, or porous, like ſponge, and many of them even hollow, in the form of grottos; and apparently owing to the currents which have been already mentioned.

In ſailing from Michillimakinac to the river St. Joſeph, at the bottom of lake Michigan, it is found, though the wind is contrary, that a veſſel will go about eight or ten leagues in a day: and this proves that the currents muſt increaſe her velocity. The ſame thing has been obſerved at entering the bay Des Puans. There is no doubt but that this bay, which has no viſible outlet but on one ſide, diſcharges itſelf into lake Michigan; and that the Michigan, which is circumſtanced in the ſame manner as that bay, empties its waters into the lake Huron: and the rather as Michigan and the bay receive ſeveral rivers into their boſoms, eſpecially the Michigan lake, to which there is an acceſſion of a very great number, ſome of them not inferior in magnitude to the river Seine in France. Yet theſe currents are perceivable only in the middle of the channel, by a kind of eddy, or counter-current, on both ſides of their banks, of which an advantage is made by coaſting along near the ſhore, as thoſe are obliged to do who ſail in canoes made of bark.

At firſt they run five leagues to the W. in order to gain lake Michigan, and afterwards ſteering to the S. which is the only courſe veſſels have to take for 100 leagues (the extent of this lake from N. to S.) till they come to the river St. Joſeph.

Nothing

Nothing exceeds the beauty of the country which ſeparates lake Michigan from lake Huron.

MICHILLIMAKINAC, a ſmall iſland in the Huron lake of Canada, in N. America. It lies in lat. 43. 30. N. Here is only a middling village, in which, however, a pretty good trade in peltery is ſaid to be carried on, as being the paſs, or the place of rendezvous, for ſeveral ſavage nations; but this traffic is ſince removed, we are told, to Hudſon's bay, by the channel of the river Bourbon.

The ſituation, however, of Michillimakinac is very advantageous for the purpoſes of commerce. It lies between three great lakes; namely, Michigan, which is 300 leagues in circuit, without ſaying any thing of the great bay Puans that empties itſelf into it; lake Huron, which is 350 leagues in circuit, and is in the form of a triangle; and laſtly, the Superior lake, which is 500. All three are navigable for the largeſt barks: and the two firſt are ſeparated only by a ſmall ſtreight, in which there is alſo abundant water for the ſame veſſels to navigate through without obſtruction over all lake Erie, as far as Niagara. There is indeed a communication between lake Huron and the Superior lake, only by means of a canal of 22 leagues in length, but very much interrupted by cataracts or water-falls: yet ſo as not to hinder canoes from coming to unload at Michillimakinac, all that they can bring from the Superior lake. See SUPERIOR, and the other lakes under their proper names, alſo CANADA.

MIDDLETON, a pretty good town of Monmouth, the moſt ſouthern county of Eaſt Jerſey,

ſey, in N. America. It conſiſts of an hundred families, with out-plantations of 30,000 acres. The ſhore near this place, winding like a hook, and being ſandy, is denominated Sandyhook. It lies 26 miles S. of Piſcataway.

MISASSIPPI, MESCHASIPPI, or MISSISSIPPI, a country of N. America. It is bounded on the N. by Canada; on the E. by the Britiſh plantations; on the S. by the gulph of Mexico; and it has New Mexico on the W.

A large river, of the ſame name with the preceding country, riſing in Canada, runs to the ſouthward, till it falls into the gulph of Mexico. It is navigable, and ſaid to run upwards of 2000 miles, in a very winding courſe; to which, as well as the neighbouring country, the French lay claim; and have even poſſeſſed themſelves of part of it ever ſince the year 1712.

Upon ſounding the entrance into the Miſſiſippi, it was found to have 16 feet water upon the bar. After which the Neptune, a ſhip juſt arrived from France, was immediately ſent, and ſhe eaſily ſailed up the river as far as New Orleans.

From Fort Crevecœur the Miſſiſippi was entered by the Sieur Dacan and Father Hennepin, who ſailed up it as far as lat. 46. N. where they were ſtopped by a pretty high water-fall for the whole breadth of the river, called by them Sault de S. Antoine de Padoue, or St. Antony of Padua's Leap. The ſource of the Miſſiſippi is ſtill unknown; but it runs almoſt quite through N. America. The lake Aſſiniboils is very far from the places where theſe two voyagers were: and it is certain, that the French

French had at that time no ſettlement on the banks of the river which they ſailed down.

The French court, under the regency of the Duke of Orleans, raiſed the expectations of the nation ſo high, with regard to the immenſe riches which were to be acquired by planting it in 1719, under the name of the Miſſiſippi company, and almoſt coeval with the South ſea ſcheme in England, that every one was ready to throw his money into the ſtocks, which that company ſold at 2000 per cent. But the government ſeized upon moſt of the money: ſo that the adventurers were ruined. This at that time put a ſtop to the planting of the country here; but it has been encouraged very much ſince.

It receives a great number of large rivers in its courſe, as the Ohio, almoſt equal to the Danube; the Ouabache, ſcarcely inferior to it, with the great rivers Alibama, Mobile, &c. ſome of which bring down ſuch prodigious quantities of mud and ſlime, that it can hardly clear itſelf in the courſe of 20 leagues. It breeds vaſt numbers of crocodiles and other amphibious creatures. It hath plenty of waterfowl, and the country on both ſides is pretty fertile, and inhabited by a great variety of nations.

It diſcharges itſelf by two branches, which form an iſland of a conſiderable length. Its mouths lie between lat. 29. and 30. N. and long. 89. and 90. W. being filled with ſeveral other ſmaller iſlands.

The country on each ſide theſe two mouths is quite wild and uninhabitable, on account of the frequent inundations, as well as barrenneſs

of

of the ſoil, producing nothing but ruſhes, canes, and ſome kinds of trees, great part of which lie rooted up by the force of the water. But a few leagues higher, towards the iſland, it is repreſented as a delightful country, covered with vines, and all ſorts of fruit-trees: the ground producing plenty of Indian corn, pulſe, and other grain; and yielding, it is ſaid, two crops in the year.

Mobile, a river of Canada, in N. America, and one of thoſe conſiderable ſtreams which fall into the Miſſiſippi. On its banks is the French ſettlement of Dauphin iſland, about 70 leagues E. of the latter river. This and Fort Louis, which is nine leagues N. of it, are now the moſt conſiderable ſettlements of that nation.

Mohawks, one of the five nations of the Iroquois, in alliance with Great Britain. Their country lies between New York and the lake Ontario, in N. America.

Of the ſame name is alſo a river, which runs through the Mohawks country.

Mona, one of the Antilles iſlands, not far from Hiſpaniola, and due Eaſt from St. Domingo, in the way to Porto Rico; not above three leagues in circuit: but is ſaid to have an excellent climate and ſoil, bearing oranges, much the largeſt and fineſt in America, beſides other fruit. Here is plenty of good water, and the iſland is pretty populous.

Monquegua, a juriſdiction of the dioceſe of Arequipa, in Peru, S. America. It lies about 40 leagues S. of the city of Arequipa, and 16 from the coaſt of the South ſea. It extends at leaſt 40 leagues in length, and in ſo happy a climate, that it is adorned with large vine-

yards,

yards, from the produce of which conſiderable quantities of wine and brandy are made: and theſe conſtitute its whole commerce; ſupplying all the provinces bordering on the Cordilleras, as far as Potoſi, by land-carriage, while they are exported by ſea to Callao, where they are highly valued. Here are alſo papas and olives.

The principal town, of the ſame name, is inhabited by Spaniards; and among theſe are ſeveral opulent and noble families.

Monte Christo, a town in the juriſdiction of Guayaquil, which formerly ſtood in the bay of Manta, and was called by that name. It had then a conſiderable commerce, by veſſels paſſing from Panama to the ports of Peru. But having been pillaged and deſtroyed by ſome foreign adventurers, the inhabitants removed to the foot of Monte Chriſto, where it now ſtands.

Monte Video, a city of Buenos Ayres, and La Plata, in S. America. It ſtands in the bay of the ſame name.

Montreal, a town of Canada, in N. America. It ſtands in an iſland of the ſame name in the river St. Laurence, and 60 leagues (others ſay 100 miles) S. of Quebec. It is a well-peopled place, of an oblong form, the ſtreets very open, and the houſes well built. The fortifications are pretty ſtrong, being ſurrounded by a wall, flanked with 11 redoubts, which ſerve inſtead of baſtions; the ditch is about eight feet deep, and of a proportionable breadth, but dry, encompaſſing the town, except that part which lies towards the river. It has four gates, one of them very ſmall. It has alſo

a fort

a fort or citadel, the batteries of which command the ſtreets of the town from the one end to the other; and over the river St. Peter is a bridge.

The bank of the river St. Laurence, on which the town of Montreal is built, riſes inſenſibly from the water's edge to the oppoſite part of the town; which is divided into two parts, called the Lower, and the Upper town; though the aſcent in paſſing from the former to the latter is ſcarcely perceivable. The merchants in general reſide in the lower town; and here is alſo the place of arms, the nunnery hoſpital, and royal magazines. But the principal ſtructures are in the upper town; among which are the Recollets convent, the pariſh-church and free-ſchool, the jeſuits church and ſeminary, the palace of the governor, and the houſes of moſt of the officers belonging to the garriſon. The Recollets convent is a ſpacious ſtructure, and their community very numerous. The pariſh-church is large and well built, of hewn ſtone; and the free-ſchool, which joins to it, very commodious, but not magnificent. The Jeſuits ſeminary is ſmall, but their church is well ornamented. The Governor's palace is a large building: and the ſame may be ſaid of ſeveral others in the town of Montreal. The nunnery-hoſpital is a commodious ſtructure, and ſerved by religious ſiſters, who originally came from La Fleche, a town of Anjou, in France. Their ſalon in this building is grand and well furniſhed; and their church is well built, neat, and convenient.

Without the town, on the other ſide of St. Peter's river, are ſeveral elegant houſes; particularly

cularly one belonging to M. de Calliere, and the general hospital, called les Freres Charrons, from its being established by a gentleman of that name, who had associated with him several persons of piety and learning, for founding so useful a charity, and furnishing the country-parishes with school-masters, for the instruction of the Indian children. He had the pleasure of seeing the general hospital established before his death, which happened in the year 1719, though his brethren had deserted him some time before. The place formerly belonged to the French: but the English took it from them in 1760, having before made themselves masters of Quebec, and are now in possession of most of the country. Lat. 46. 10. N. long. 75. 12. W.

The island of Montreal, in which the town of the same name is built, is about ten leagues long and four broad, being very fruitful in corn, and abounding with elegant plantations. It has its name from a mountain of great height, situated about the middle of the island, which it seems to overlook, like a monarch from his throne, and thence acquired the appellation of the Royal mountain, a name which has been since given to the town itself, which was originally called Ville Marie.

The river St. Laurence is here about a league in breadth, and its banks interspersed with trees and seats, containing several islands: some of which are inhabited, and others in their natural state, exhibiting to the eye the most beautiful prospect. Indeed the banks of the river from Quebec to Montreal are pretty well settled. The farms lie pretty close all the way, and several gentlemen's seats shew themselves at intervals.

The river is not navigable at Montreal, on account of feveral cataracts and rocks, which obftruct the paffage

Though the lands of Montreal produce Indian corn in abundance, and all the vegetables of Europe flourifh in it: yet the French have never been able to eftablifh any ftaple commodity to anfwer their demands on their mother-country. Their trade with the Indians produces all their returns to that market. The furs of the beaver, with thofe of foxes and racoons, the fkins of deer, and all the branches of the peltry, together with what corn and lumber they can fend to the Weft-Indies, conftitute their whole ftock of merchandife. And thefe have been found fufficient to render their lives agreeable in this fruitful country.

They have wine, brandy, cloth, linen, and wrought iron from Europe: and the Indian trade requires brandy, tobacco, a fort of duffil-blankets, guns, powder and ball, kettles, hachets, tomahawks, with feveral forts of toys and trinkets. The Indians fupply the peltry: and the French have traders whom they call Coureurs de Bois, who, like the original inhabitants, traverfing the vaft lakes and rivers which interfect this country, in canoes made of bark, with incredible patience and induftry, carry their goods into the remoteft parts of America, and difpofe of them to nations entirely unknown to us. This in return brings the market home to them, as the Indians are by this means encouraged to trade with the French themfelves at Montreal. For which purpofe people from all parts, even thofe who dwell above a thoufand miles diftant, come to the fair at Montreal, which is annually holden in June; and it fometimes continues for three

months

months together. Many ſolemnities are obſerved on this occaſion; guards are planted in proper ſtations, and the Governor himſelf aſſiſts in perſon to preſerve order among ſuch a vaſt concourſe of ſavage nations. Nor are all theſe precautions ſufficient, as the ſavages too often find means of intoxicating themſelves with ſpirituous liquors, which produces a temporary madneſs, during which they are guilty of the moſt enormous exceſſes.

Notwithſtanding this trade has for many years paſt been carried on at Montreal; yet many of the tribes of ſavages actually paſs by our ſettlement of Albany in New York, where they might purchaſe the goods they want conſiderably cheaper than at Montreal. Yet they travel on above 200 miles further to buy the ſome commodities at ſecond hand, after their price is enhanced by the expence of ſo long a land-carriage, at the Montreal-fair. For the French have found by experience, that it is cheaper for them to purchaſe their goods of the New-York merchants, than to have them from their own country: ſo that the French have found ſome ſecret of conciliating the affections of the ſavages, which our traders ſeem ſtrangers to, or at leaſt take no care to put it in practice.

MONTSERRAT, one of the Caribbee iſlands, and among the ſmalleſt of them in the Atlantic ocean in America. Columbus diſcovered it in 1493. It is of an oval form, about three leagues long, and the ſame in breadth, being 18 or 20 in circuit. Its mountains are covered with cedars, acajous, &c. Its valleys are well watered and fruitful: but the climate and ſoil, the latter being light and ſandy, though highly fertile, are

much the ſame with thoſe of the other iſlands; as are alſo its animals and trade. Its chief produce is indigo, but of a very inferior kind, beſides ſome ſugar, and the commodities derived from the cane. It is ſo ſurrounded with rocks that the riding before it is very precarious and dangerous on the approach of a tornado, having properly no haven. It contains about 5000 Europeans, who are maſters of 10 or 12,000 African ſlaves.

On the 29th and 30th of June 1733, a hurricane happened here, the whole damage of which, excluſive of the ſhipping, was reckoned not leſs than 50,000l. currency.

In Queen Anne's wars the French plundered and waſted this iſland for ten days. But by the 11th article of the Utrecht treaty, it was ſtipulated that ſatisfaction ſhould be made the Engliſh ſufferers: but it does not appear what it was they obtained, nor indeed whether they had any at all. It lies 30 miles S. W. of Antigua, and is ſubject to Great Britain. Lat. 17. 10. N long. 62. 100 W.

Moose river factory, an Engliſh ſettlement in New South-Wales, and the northern countries of America, which has been erected ever ſince 1740. It is built near the mouth of the river of Mooſe, in lat. 51 28. on a navigable river, which at 12 miles diſtance from the fort is divided into two branches; the one comes from the ſouthward, and the other from the S. W. Upon the ſouthern branch thrive all ſorts of grain, as barley, beans and peaſe do at the factory, tho' expoſed to the chilling winds from the ice in the bay. Upon the ſouthern part above the falls grows naturally along the river a kind of wild oats,

oats, and rye like rice. In the woods, at the bottom of the bay at Moose and Albany, as well as at Rupert's river, are very large timber-trees of all kinds, oak, ash, &c. as well as pine, cedar and spruce. They have exceeding good grass for hay; and they may have every where within land, pulse, grain and fruit trees, as in the same climate in Europe.

The ice breaks up at Moose factory in the beginning of March, but higher up about the middle of that month. The river is navigable for canoes a great way up among the falls. At a considerable distance there is one fall of 50 feet; but above that it is deep and navigable a great way. The climate above the fall is very good.

MORROPE, a town in the road between Quito and Lima, in South America. It consists of between 70 and 80 houses, containing about 160 families, all Indians: near it runs the river Pozuelos, its banks being cultivated and adorned with trees. The instinct of the beasts used to this road is surprising; for even at the distance of four leagues they smell its water, and accordingly pursue the shortest road. Morrope is 28 or 30 leagues distant from Sechura, all that way being a sandy plain, the track continually shifting.

MOSKITO, or MUSKITO, a country of Mexico in North America, between Truxillo and Honduras. Lat. 13 and 15. N. and long 85. and 88. W. It is bounded by the North-sea on the N. and E. by Nicaragua on the S. and by Honduras on the W. The Spaniards indeed reckon this a part of the province of Honduras, tho' they have no settlements in the Moskito country.

When

When the Spaniards firſt invaded this part of Mexico, they barbarouſly maſſacred moſt of the natives, whence proceeds the inſuperable averſion of ſuch of them as eſcaped into the inacceſſible mountains againſt the Spaniards: and for that reaſon they have always readily joined with any Europeans that come upon their coaſt in enterpriſes againſt the Spaniards, particularly with the Engliſh, who frequently come among them.

The Moſkito Indians being excellent markſmen, are employed by the Engliſh to ſtrike the manatee fiſh; and many of them ſail in Engliſh veſſels to Jamaica.

When the Duke of Albemarle was governor of the laſt-mentioned iſland, theſe people put themſelves under the protection of the crown of England, and their King received a commiſſion from him. Since which time, when their King dies, the next male heir goes to Jamaica, and receives a commiſſion accordingly; but before that he is not acknowledged as ſuch by his countrymen.

Lately offers have been ſent by us into the Moſkito country, in order to have colonies ſettled among them.

MOUNTJOY, a manor of Newcaſtle country, and Penſylvania, where the firſt limeſtone found in America was dug. This whole county is remarkable for its excellent gravel, a thing very rarely to be met with on the continent of America.

MYRTLE ISLAND, an iſland in the bay of Naſſau in Florida. See NASSAU Bay.

End of the SECOND VOLUME.